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The Organization and Administration of Supervision

In Cities Having a Population of 10,000 to 20,000

A Thesis
Submitted to the Graduate School
of the
University of Minnesota
by
Ernest Oscar Melby
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy

JULY
1928

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E. O. M.

Table of Contents

PART I. THE ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

Chapter — Page

I. The Problem of Supervisory Organization 3
- Developments in Supervisory Organization
- Factors in Supervisory Organization

II. The Procedure 6
- Supervisory Organization
- The Descriptive Items
- Sources
- Supervisory Activities and Devices
- The Questionnaire Technique
- Educational Specialists
- The Extent of the Canvass

III. The Schools and Their Supervisory Organizations 11
- Plans of School Organization
- School Enrollments
- Total Enrollments
- Elementary and High-School Enrollments
- Teachers Employed
- School Buildings
- The Supervisory Problem Confronting the Cities Included
- The Organization for Supervision
- Sectional Tendencies
- Miscellaneous Supervisory Officers
- The Supervisory Staff in Individual School Systems
- Building Principals as Supervisors
- Size of Building as a Factor
- Influence of the Principal's Training
- The Typical Supervisory Organization
- Implications of Present Organizations

IV. The Training and Experience of Supervisory Officers. 22
- The Training of Superintendents of Schools
- Summer School Attendance
- The Superintendent's Experience
- The Superintendent's Manner of Entrance into His Position
- The Principals of Elementary Schools
- Degrees Attained
- Experience
- Practice in Selection
- Men and Women Principals
- Professional Destinations
- Educational Courses Pursued

Chapter Page

The Special Supervisors
Training
Institutions in Which Special Supervisors Have Been Trained
Summer School Attendance
Professional Reading
The Secondary School Principals
Experience
Administrative Practices Designed to Promote Professional Growth
Teacher Selection
Salary Schedules
Professional Requirements
The Typical Supervisory Staff and Its Qualifications
Implications of the Data on Training and Experience

V. Staff Relationships and Responsibilities 45
The Direction of Staff Members
Latitude Enjoyed by Supervisory Officials
Expressions of Superintendents
Relationships and Responsibilities in Connection with Special Supervision
Relationships and Responsibilities in Connection with General Supervision
The Superintendent's Participation in Supervision
Relationships wth General Supervisors
Practices of Superintendents in the Direction of Supervisory Work
Organization as Viewed by Teachers
The Responsibilities of Teachers
Differences Between Elementary and High Schools
The Coördination of Supervisory Activity
The Judgments of Specialists in Administration and Supervision
The Typical Situation in Connection with Relationships and Responsibilities
General Supervision
Special Supervision

VI. Supervisory Procedure 70
Supervision by Principals
Time Distribution
Type of School Organization and Time Distribution
Supervision by High-School Principals
The Work of Special Supervisors
Visitation Practice by Principals and Special Supervisors
Viewpoints in Regard to Supervision
The Procedure Followed
Viewpoints of Special Supervisors

Chapter Page

Principles Under Which General Supervision is Organized
Principles Under Which Secondary School Supervision is Organized
Viewpoints of Specialists
Influence of the Teacher's Training
Supervisory Procedure in the Typical School System and Its Implications
Principals
Special Supervisors

PART II. SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES

VII. Fact Finding Activities and Devices 89
Studies of Supervisory Activities
Recapitulation
The Development of the Technique
Securing Judgments of Teachers
The Basis of Ranking
The Fact Finding Activities
Classroom Visitation
Tests
Teacher's Reports
Practice in Fact Finding Compared with Judgments of Value
Fact Presentation Activities
Teachers' Meetings for Announcements
Bulletins
Summary

VIII. Activities and Devices for Stimulating Growth and Improvement 107
Activities of Different Supervisors
Evaluation of the Activities
Teachers' Meetings
Demonstration Teaching
Intervisitation
Exhibits
Lectures and Reports
Encouraging Professional Reading
Conferences with Individual Teachers
Experimentation
Assisting Teachers in Self Evaluation
Summary
Activities and Devices for the Training of Teachers and the Improvement of Instruction
Office Hours When Teachers Get Help
Coöperative Studies by Teachers
Individual Studies by Teachers
Institutional Training

Chapter Page

The Evaluation of Supervision
General Status of Supervisory Activities
The Reactions of Special Supervisors
Summary

IX. Some Plans of Supervisory Organization 131
Problems in Special Supervision
Necessity for Special Supervision
Procedure in Special Supervision
The Activities of Special Supervisors
General Supervision
Influence of Training
Size of Buildings as a Factor
Supervisory Activities
Training of Teachers and Supervisory Activities
The Form of Supervisory Organization
Some Possible Plans
Judgments of Specialists
Disagreement Found
Conclusion

Bibliography 143
Appendix A 147
Appendix B 151
Appendix C 153

List of Tables

Number		Page
I.	Percent of Various Kinds of Supervisory Officers in 171 Cities	10
II.	Summary of Data in Chapter III	12
III.	Distribution of 171 Cities According to Size and Number of Elementary School Buildings	14
IV.	Supervisors Employed by 171 School Systems According to Geographical Sections	15
V.	Distribution of 171 Cities According to Personnel of Supervisory Staff Employed	17
VI.	Distribution of Three Types of Elementary School Principals According to Enrollments	18
VII.	Distribution of 171 Cities According to Practices in Connection with Types of Principals Employed	19
VIII.	Distribution of 100 Superintendents According to Summer School Attendance	23
IX.	Distribution of 100 City Superintendents According to Years of Experience	24
X.	Positions From Which 100 Superintendents Were Promoted to the Superintendency	24
XI.	Distribution of 69 Superintendents According to Recency of Their Promotions from High-School Principalships	26
XII.	Distribution of 17 Superintendents Who Began Their Educational Work as Superintendents, According to Years of Total Experience	26
XIII.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Years of Training Beyond High School	27
XIV.	Distribution of Principals According to Degrees Held	28
XV.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Years of Experience as Teachers	29
XVI.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Years of Experience as Supervisors	30
XVII.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Total Years of Educational Experience	31
XVIII.	Distribution of Principals According to Professional Destination	32
XIX.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Terms of Summer School Attended	33

Number		Page
XX.	Distribution of Special Supervisors According to Type of Institution in Which They Received Their Training	35
XXI.	Comparing Positions from Which Junior High- and High-School Principals Secure Their Principalships	39
XXII.	Practice in Teacher Selection in 100 Cities From 10,000 to 20,000 Population	40
XXIII.	Practices in the Use of the Salary Schedule to Stimulate Professional Growth	40
XXIV.	Practices Designed to Stimulate Professional Growth on the Part of Teachers	41
XXV.	Summary of Data on Training and Experience of Supervisory Officers	42
XXVI.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to the Title of Official to Whom They are Directly Responsible	45
XXVII.	Comparing Degrees of Latitude Which Various Types of Supervisors Indicate Is Accorded to Them by the School Administration	47
XXVIII.	Comparing the Degrees of Latitude Which Various Types of Supervisors Indicate That they Accord to Teachers Under Their Supervision	49
XXIX.	Distribution of Elementary School Teachers According to the Extent to Which They Are Required to Follow Definite Method in Art and Music	50
XXX.	Comparing the Extent to Which Various Principals and Supervisors Participate in Certain Activities	51
XXXI.	Comparing the Percentages of General Supervisors Who State That They Follow Certain Practices with the Statements of Their Superintendents and Educational Specialists Regarding Same Items	53
XXXII.	Comparing Reports by Various Groups Concerning the Part Played by Principals in Supervision of Elementary Schools	54
XXXIII.	Comparing Reports of Various Groups Regarding the Part Played by the Superintendent in Elementary School Supervision	55
XXXIV.	Comparing the Statements of Various Groups Regarding the Part Played by the Superintendent in Supervision in High School	57

Number		Page
XXXV.	Distribution of 377 Elementary and 334 High-School Teachers According to Degree of Responsibility Which They Feel for the Curriculum..	58
XXXVI.	Comparing the Extent to Which Elementary and High-School Teachers Feel That They are Required to Conform in Methods of Teaching...	60
XXXVII.	Comparing Practices of Elementary and High-School Teachers in Connection With the Use of the Course of Study.....	60
XXXVIII.	Comparing the Extent to Which Elementary and High-School Teachers Indicate That They Use Methods Presented by Supervisors.....	61
XXXIX.	Distribution of 100 School Systems According to Plan Provided for Coördination of Staff Activities in Health and Physical Education.....	62
XL.	Comparing the Judgments of Specialists in Administration and Supervision with the Practices Followed in 100 Cities.....	64
XLI.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Proportion of Time Devoted to Teaching.....	71
XLII.	Distribution of Supervising Principals of Six and Eight Year Schools According to Proportions of Time Devoted to Supervision, Teaching and Other Activities	72
XLIII.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Proportion of Time Devoted to Supervision....	73
XLIV.	Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to Proportion of Time Devoted to Activities Other than Teaching or Supervision.....	74
XLV.	Comparison of Number of Visits Per Month Made by Supervisory Officers.....	75
XLVI.	Comparison of Length of Visits Made by Supervisory Officers.....	76
XLVII.	Comparing Practices in the Organization of the Supervision and Teaching of Various Special Subjects	77
XLVIII.	Comparing the Percentages of Various Groups of Supervisory Officers Who Subscribe to Certain Viewpoints in Regard to Supervision.....	80
XLIX.	Supervisory Activities of Public School Principals	90
L.	Comparing the Rank Orders of Fact-Finding Activities According to Teachers' Judgments of Their Value as Shown by Weighted and Unweighted Percentages	96

Number		Page
LI.	Comparing Rank Orders of Fact-Finding Activities According to Teachers' Judgments of the Extent of Their Use	97
LII.	Showing Extent to Which Several Types of Supervisors Indicate That They Use Various Fact-Finding Activities and Devices Expressed in Percents of the Total Number Replying Who State That the Activity is Much Used	98
LIII.	Comparing the Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Indicate That Certain Fact-Finding Activities Have Great Value According to Their Judgment	99
LIV.	Percentages of Several Kinds of Supervisory Officers Indicating Various Fact-Presentation Activities and Devices as Much Used or Emphasized	104
LV.	Comparing Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Indicate that Certain Fact-Presentation Activities Are of Great Value	105
LVI.	Percentages of Several Kinds of Supervisory Officers Indicating Various Activities and Devices for Stimulating Growth and Improvement as Much Used or Emphasized	108
LVII.	Comparing Judgments of Various Groups Concerning the Value of Certain Supervisory Activities and Devices, Expressed in Percentages of Those Who State That the Activity Is of Great Value	110
LVIII.	Percentages of Several Kinds of Supervisory Officers Indicating Various Activities for the Training of Teachers and The Improvement of Instruction as Being Much Used or Emphasized	118
LIX.	Comparing the Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Indicate That Certain Activities and Devices in the Training of Teachers and the Improvement of Instruction Are of Great Value	119
LX.	Comparing Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Indicate That Certain Procedures for Evaluating the Results of Supervision are Much Used	122
LXI.	Comparing Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Indicate That Certain Procedures for Evaluating the Results of Supervision Are of Great Value	123

Number Page

LXII. Comparing the Judgments of 377 Elementary School Teachers Concerning the Value and Extent of Use of Certain Supervisory Activities and Devices 124

LXIII. Comparing Judgments of 377 Elementary School Teachers Concerning the Value and Extent of Use of 65 Supervisory Activities and Devices.. 125

LXIV. Comparing the Average Percentages of Various Supervisory Groups Who Checked Certain Columns Following Items in Inventory..... 127

LXV. Comparing Percentages of Various Special Supervisors in 100 Cities Who Favor Certain Types of Organization for the Teaching and Supervision of Special Subjects..... 138

LXVI. Comparing the Judgments of Supervisors, Administrators and Those of Authorities in the Field of Administration and Supervision Concerning Certain Types of Organization for the Teaching and Supervision of Special Subjects..... 140

List of Diagrams

1 A Typical Existing Supervisory Organization in Cities of 10,000 to 20,000 Based Upon Divided Responsibility of Classroom Teachers for Special Subjects..... 131

2 A Form of Supervisory Organization Based Upon Complete Responsibility of Classroom Teachers for All Subjects, Special or Regular..... 137

3 A Form of Supervisory Organization Based Upon Departmentalization of Elementary School and High-School Instruction 139

PART I

The Organization for Supervision

CHAPTER I

The Problem of Supervisory Organization

The organization of supervision is rapidly becoming one of the major problems of the superintendent of schools. The superintendent must not only know how to supervise. He must in addition organize and direct the supervisory efforts of others. The superintendent is called upon to set up the organization for supervision, to decide what supervisors should be employed, to select the personnel, to allocate their duties and responsibilities, and to assist them in their work.

DEVELOPMENTS IN SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

The problem facing the superintendent of schools will become more apparent upon consideration of a number of social and educational developments. According to the 1900 census there were in the United States 280 cities with a population between 10,000 and 25,000. By 1910 this number had increased to 367; while in 1920 there were 459 cities of this size. This increase indicates that there has been a rapid growth in cities of this size and smaller. In the early stages of this growth the superintendent in these cities was the only supervisor in the school system. As the city grew larger the superintendent was unable to discharge all the supervisory duties unaided. Principals with varying degrees of supervisory responsibility were therefore employed. At the same time the demand for the addition of certain subjects to the curriculum found the school organization unprepared to provide instruction in such subjects. Specialists were accordingly engaged to supervise the teaching of these subjects. Thus the growth of the school system, together with the increased school offering, has resulted in the establishment of a rather complicated supervisory organization.

Including principals and special supervisors, the typical city included in this study has a supervisory staff of ten members. While this staff may relieve the superintendent of a considerable portion of the actual supervisory routine, its existence may at the same time confront him with the new problem of effective organization and direction. Moreover, it is a responsibility which the superintendent is probably not prepared to assume. He has personally been engaged

in the detail of supervisory work, leaving little opportunity for experience in the organization of the supervisory efforts of others. The mere size of the supervisory staff usually found in these cities creates an organization problem of no mean proportion. If overlapping of effort, conflict of authority, and omission of important activities are to be avoided, responsibilities must be carefully delegated and relationships clearly established. The need for coördination of supervisory activity would readily seem to be apparent if a balanced educational program is to result.

FACTORS IN SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

The difficulty of perfecting and maintaining an effective organization for supervision is aggravated by the changing character of the several factors involved in the educational enterprise. Existing supervisory organizations have been developed around certain concepts in regard to the training of teachers. Training programs, however, are constantly being modified. These modifications in teacher training may make desirable corresponding changes in supervisory organization and procedure. The status of principals is likewise a changing one. It may be effected by modifications in the school organization as, for example, the junior high school. This plan of organization may place the elementary principal in a school of six years rather than in one of eight, as under the traditional plan. The rapid growth of the city, together with unwise planning of the plant program, may place the principal in a building so small as to make it unjustifiable under the conditions to give him full time for supervision. In some cases of this kind a general supervisor for all buildings may be employed. In this event the status of principals, as well as that of other supervisory officers, may be materially affected. Through the addition of various general and special supervisors, the principal may be relieved of the supervision of certain subjects or of some form of responsibility. On the other hand, this principal may, under such conditions, face a new problem in coördinating his work with that of several other supervisors. It appears, therefore, that the status of any supervisory officer may be affected by change in the supervisory organization itself as well as by modifications in the organization of the schools, and in the training of the teachers supervised.

It would seem that the changing character of the many factors involved in the organization for supervision and its administration makes necessary a constant and critical study of existing organiza-

tions and procedures to the end that these may be modified, if necessary, to meet current needs.

This investigation seeks to inventory practices in the organization and administration of supervision in cities ranging in size from 10,000 to 20,000, and to evaluate these practices in terms of the judgments of supervisory officers, teachers, and educational specialists. More specifically it seeks to determine:

(1) The nature of the problem confronting supervisors in these school systems, in terms of school population, school plant facilities, school organization, and curricular offering.

(2) The types of supervisory organizations established in these cities, including the supervisors employed as well as their qualifications for their work.

(3) The operation of these organizations in terms of existing relationships and responsibilities.

(4) The procedures followed and activities employed by the various types of supervisory officers.

(5) The judgments of supervisors, teachers, and specialists in supervision concerning the value of certain supervisory activities as well as certain principles under which supervision may be organized.

(6) The evaluation of supervisory activities and procedures in certain cities by the teachers supervised.

CHAPTER II

The Procedure

The procedure followed in this study consisted of two major parts: a study of supervisory organizations, and a study of the activities and devices used. Each of the two aspects of the investigation required definite techniques, which are reviewed briefly in this chapter. A number of the details can best be discussed in relationship to the results secured, and, for this reason, they are explained in later chapters. It is the purpose of this chapter to provide only a general description of the method followed.

SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

One of the difficulties confronted in seeking to secure a picture of practice in supervisory organization is the frequent disparity between the character of an organization on paper and its functioning when in actual operation. A method was sought, therefore, which would get at the manner in which the organization is functioning rather than a theoretical statement of its plan.

In order to avoid a faulty picture of the organization in individual situations, all the supervisory staff members in each school system were asked to react to largely the same descriptive items. It was thought that if the actual operation of an organization was at a variance with what the superintendent, for instance, believed it was, this fact would be discovered in the replies of other staff members. In this way the picture of any individual organization is made up of the replies of from three to twelve staff members. It was hardly believed likely that the majority of such groups could be in serious error concerning the true nature of the organization and its operation.

The individual members of the several organizations were also asked to make their comments in different ways. It was thought that in cases of misunderstanding or incorrect reporting these items would be apt to be inconsistent. In case such inconsistencies were discovered, proper allowances might be made in interpretation.

THE DESCRIPTIVE ITEMS

The method selected was a procedure for checking statements which were descriptive of possible characteristics of a supervisory organiza-

tion. The aim was to select statements which were adequate in number and scope not only to cover fairly well the practices found, but also to select those most critical factors from which certain conclusions could be drawn regarding the true character of the practice described. One of the greatest difficulties encountered was the selection of these descriptive items.

SOURCES

The first step was to consult the literature in this field and similar fields. More or less empirically a form was then prepared with items which, it was believed, would have a discriminating effect. Permission was secured to visit ten Minnesota school systems in cities ranging in size from 8,000 to 20,000.[1] Special forms were prepared for the several kinds of supervisory officers. These supervisors were all interviewed personally. They were asked also to fill out the forms. The difficulties encountered by supervisors in reacting to the forms were noted. Any differences between the reactions on the forms and the facts as reported in interviews were also noted. Suggestions were invited for the improvement of the forms. In the belief that information might be secured from teachers concerning the functioning of these supervisory organizations, the forms also were distributed to teachers and filled out by them where possible while assembled in a meeting. At the same time their judgments were secured concerning supervisory practices and the value of certain supervisory activities.

In these ten school systems it was planned to secure the characteristics of the supervisory organization through personal interviews, the reactions of staff members on prepared forms, together with the judgments of the teachers who were being supervised, concerning the organization in its actual functioning. In this phase of the study the aim was primarily to secure a basis for the preparation of a more effective set of report forms, and, only secondarily, to secure facts concerning these particular school systems.

The materials resulting from the first-hand study of these organizations were summarized and the results considered in the preparation of the final report forms to be used for wider distribution. It was found that a number of the items used in the original forms did not bring the data sought. Certain tendencies in supervisory organization were revealed through reactions of supervisors and teachers, which

[1] Albert Lea, Austin, Faribault, Mankato, Owatonna, Red Wing, Rochester, South St. Paul, St. Cloud, and Winona.

were added to the lists of descriptive items. Samples of the more important forms used in this study are included in the Appendix.

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES

Adequate treatment of the problem of organization in supervision should probably take account of the activities which the organizations carry on. During the interviews with various types of supervisors, marked differences were found in the activities and devices used by supervisors of various kinds. It was thought that if widely found these differences would have a significant bearing on the whole problem of supervisory organization. It was therefore proposed to study carefully the activities carried on by each type of supervisor. A more detailed discussion of the method used is given in Part II in connection with the report of the resulting data.

The whole problem of securing an accurate report of supervisory activity is beset with considerable difficulty. Any effort to get supervisors to report quantitatively concerning the amount of such activities is probably open to considerable error. Keeping diaries may be an effective method, but it entails a degree of labor which renders its use limited. Determining time given to supervision, for instance, gives no conception of the nature of the supervisory activity. In the present study the principal purpose of making an inventory of activities and devices was to compare the practices of various types and groups of supervisors. It was hoped to compare judgments concerning the effectiveness and value of the devices used with the extent to which such devices are used. For these reasons there was less concern about exact quantitative amounts of any particular activity than about the relative degree of emphasis which a particular activity or device receives. It was hoped also, in certain systems at least, to secure reports from teachers concerning both the extent to which certain activities and devices were employed in practice and the teacher's reaction to the merits of these same devices. For these reasons the activity inventory was prepared in such a manner that it would elicit a response in terms of the emphasis which was being given to an activity or the degree of enthusiasm which various groups displayed toward a particular activity or device.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE TECHNIQUE

The selection of the size of city to be included in the study was somewhat arbitrary. The principal factor considered was that of securing cities of a size which would, in the main, have several special

supervisors and principals, but which would not, on the other hand, have the very complicated organization usually found in larger cities. The size group of 10,000 to 20,000 population was selected. A letter of inquiry inviting coöperation was sent on January 3, 1928, to the superintendents of schools in all cities in the United States having a population ranging from 10,000 to 20,000, which were listed in the Directory of the Federal Bureau of Education. A form was enclosed for the purpose of securing agreement to coöperate, as well as certain information with regard to the city's school system and organization.

Of the 350 cities addressed, 171 replied, agreeing to participate. The superintendents agreed to distribute the forms to supervisory officers, collect them, and return them when completed. A uniform folder for all types of supervisors had been prepared. Special inserts were provided for each type of supervisor. The forms were marked with the names of the supervisors who were to check them, and mailed to the superintendents of the coöperating school systems with the request that they be distributed and collected when completed.

The forms were mailed to 171 cities on January 21, 1928. Three follow-up letters were sent out as reminders to coöperating schools. By May 15, 1928, 120 complete returns had been received.

EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS

A modified form was prepared on which it was planned to secure the judgments of specialists in administration and supervision in regard to the various practices in organization and the several supervisory activities and devices. The form was prepared in such a manner as to provide for a classification of the replies according to certain fields, such as general supervision and special subject supervision.

In the field of general supervision, specialists were selected because of their contributions to the literature on supervision or because of known interest in the problem. In the field of the special subjects, effort was made to get specialists who were engaged in the training of supervisors. Exactly one hundred forms were addressed to general supervision specialists, of which fifty-six were received. In physical education, art and music so few replies were received that they were not used.

THE EXTENT OF THE CANVASS

As finally compiled, the study includes data on supervisory organization from 171 systems, approximately one-half of the systems in this

size group listed in the directory. Forms filled out by supervisors were received from 120 cities, somewhat more than one third of the total number of schools in the size group and almost exactly 70 percent of the total number of cities which had promised to coöperate. It should, of course, be remembered that complete returns were not received from all supervisors in all school systems. A few came too late to be included. In a very few cases, forms were so poorly filled out as not to be usable. It happens that in some instances supervisors would carefully fill out one section of the forms and leave others blank. This accounts for the fact that the totals as they appear in the various tables do not always correspond. In other cases failure to fill out a certain section was a distinguishing characteristic of the replies of a certain group. In such cases forms were not discarded on account of such failure to fill them out. The figures given in Table I represent the maximum numbers of the various groups included on any part of the study.

TABLE I

PERCENT OF VARIOUS KINDS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS IN 171 CITIES FROM WHOM REPLIES WERE RECEIVED

Supervisor	Number	Percent of Those in 171 Cities
Superintendents	100	58.4
High-school principals	80	50.0
Junior high-school principals	45	69.2
Non-teaching elementary school principals	150	50.3
Part-time teaching principals (elementary)	100	33.33
Elementary grade supervisors	33	78.6
Art supervisors	54	52
Music supervisors	75	52.8
Physical education supervisors	55	56.1
School nurses	42	68.8
Total	734	

CHAPTER III

The Schools and Their Supervisory Organizations

In selecting the cities to be included in this study, it was planned to reach school systems of such size, that they would commonly employ a supervisory staff of specialists. Considering that the 1920 census figures were used, it was realized that several of the cities now have a considerably larger population than that which is used as a basis for this selection. However, since it was proposed to investigate the problem of supervisory organization as it confronts the superintendent in cities large enough to employ specialized staff members, the exact size of the school system came to be of only secondary importance. Many smaller cities would probably show similar trends. Had larger cities been included, the number of systems without special supervisors would probably have been smaller. It was hoped to secure a picture of supervisory organization which would show varying types, ranging from systems with no special supervisors to those which employ a considerable number.

Since complete returns could not be expected from all systems which indicated their willingness to participate, the data descriptive of the school systems included has been summarized from the 171 initial replies of superintendents. Included in this total are 61 eastern, 68 north central, 30 southern, and 12 western cities.

PLANS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Sectional differences are shown in the types of school organization found. The "8-4" plan is most common in the east, the "6-3-3" in the north-central and western sections, while the "7-4" plan seems peculiar to the south (Table II). More than half of the high schools included are organized on a four year basis.

SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

The data here presented on school enrollment cannot be looked upon as entirely complete or absolutely accurate. In a few instances superintendents failed to supply the enrollment data. It seems fairly reasonable that in many instances the numbers given were estimates rather than exact figures. It was likewise impossible to secure exact

enrollment reports for the various types of school organization. Thus, the elementary school data include six, seven, and eight year schools. The secondary schools include four and six year schools. In this study the interest in these enrollments is confined to the matter of providing a rough picture of the size of the pupil groups which come under the direction of the various units in the supervisory organization. When elementary school enrollments are given, they are given as a measure of the size of the pupil group under the direction of the elementary school supervisory staff; while the secondary school enrollments give a measure of the number of pupils under the direction of the high-school supervisory organization.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF DATA IN CHAPTER III, EXPRESSED IN MEDIANS, AND ARRANGED BY GEOGRAPHICAL SECTIONS

Item	Sections and Medians				
	East	North-Central	South	West	Total
Population of city	15,000	14,500	16,000	14,000	14,900
School organization	8–4	6 6–2–4 3–3	7–4	6–3–3	8–4 or 6–3–3
Total school enrollment	2,833	2,800	2,850	3,500	2,866
Elementary school enrollment	2,000	1,912	2,066	2,400	2,000
High-school enrollment	800	890	625	950	780
Teachers employed (totals)	96	105	85	113	98
Teachers employed (elementary)	59	50	55	62	58
Teachers employed (high-school)	35	56	32	48	42
Enrollment per elementary school building	300	271	388	366	303
Number of elementary school buildings	6	6.7	5.5	8.3	6.4

TOTAL ENROLLMENTS

Median total enrollments are approximately the same in the east, north-central, and southern sections of the country (Table II). The number of western cities is small, with median enrollments somewhat larger. Western cities have a slightly smaller median population according to the 1920 census.

ELEMENTARY AND HIGH-SCHOOL ENROLLMENTS

Elementary school enrollments show the largest medians in the west and the smallest in the north-central section. In the latter case, however, it is likely that the smaller median enrollments are due to the larger proportion of "6-3-3" plans of organization in the north-central section, resulting in smaller elementary schools of six grades rather than eight, as is the case where the "8-4" plan predominates. It was not possible to get accurate enrollments for the different types of elementary schools. However, the median number of elementary school pupils enrolled in these cities is approximately 2,000, with no city enrolling less than 800 or more than 4,500. High-school enrollments are largest in the west and north-central sections. Here, again, the figures are affected somewhat by the type of organization. Southern cities have distinctly smaller high-school enrollments, probably accounted for in part by the small number of colored pupils in secondary schools.

TEACHERS EMPLOYED

The median number of teachers employed in the western and north-central systems is somewhat larger, in proportion to enrollment and population, than in the eastern and southern sections.

The median system, in the group of 171, employs nearly 100 teachers, about 40 percent of whom are in high schools and about 60 percent in elementary schools; the exact proportions depend on the type of organization and vary with geographical location. Here, again, it must be borne in mind that it is desired to establish in general the size of teacher groups to be supervised rather than the exact number of teachers employed. The number of secondary school teachers seems decidedly smaller in the south.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

The outstanding characteristic of the elementary school plants in these cities is the small size of the buildings. The median building enrollment is 300 pupils. About 7 percent of the buildings have enrollments less than 100, while about 18 percent enroll from 100 to 200. The median number of buildings in each city for the entire group is 6.4. Sectional differences shown in Table III are probably almost negligible. The larger median number of buildings per city shown in the western section is accounted for by the larger enrollments shown in this section. There is a slight tendency for buildings in the south and west to be larger. However, they are still in general "small" buildings.

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF 171 CITIES ACCORDING TO SIZE AND NUMBER OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL BUILDINGS

Building Enrollment	Section and Number of Buildings				
	East	North-Central	South	West	Total
Less than 100	34	27	9	2	72
100– 300	145	237	42	34	458
300– 600	156	164	83	61	464
600–1,000	29	21	32	3	85
More than 1,000	5	.....	.....	.....	5
Total	369	449	166	100	1,084
Medians (enrollments)	300	271	388	366	303
Median number of buildings per city	6	6.7	5.5	8.3	6.4

Other studies have shown that this situation is more or less common even in larger cities. A study by the Department of Elementary Principals' Yearbook Committee gives no distribution for buildings with teaching principals, but the median enrollment for such buildings for all cities is 287.[1]

While there seems to be some tendency for larger cities to establish larger building units, there still remains the fact that there are large numbers of small buildings in all except the very largest cities. It is clear that the typical elementary school building is a "small" building. From a supervisory standpoint this means that an organization must be provided which is adapted to the supervision of a school system housed in a considerable number of small units.

THE SUPERVISORY PROBLEM CONFRONTING THE CITIES INCLUDED

The typical situation confronting the superintendent of schools in these cities (Table II) is about as follows:

1. The city's population is about 15,000.
2. The schools enroll a total of about 2,800 children, 2,000 of whom are in elementary schools and 800 in high schools.
3. In the south this typical system is organized on the 7-4 plan; in the west, on the 6-3-3 plan; in the east, on the 8-4; while

[1] *Seventh Yearbook*, The Department of Elementary School Principals, page 285.

in the north-central section, it may be organized on the 8-4 or the 6-3-3 plan.

4. The typical system employs about 100 teachers, 60 of whom are in the elementary schools and 40 in the high schools.
5. The city has 6 or 7 elementary school buildings of varying enrollments with a median building enrollment of 300 pupils.

THE ORGANIZATION FOR SUPERVISION

The superintendents invited to coöperate in this study were asked to supply a complete list of the supervisors employed in their school systems, including the principals of buildings and the various specialists. They were asked to indicate whether principals were full-time supervising, part-time supervising, or full-time teaching principals. Replies received from 171 systems are summarized in Table IV.

SECTIONAL TENDENCIES

Slight sectional tendencies are noted, but they are not large. The number of general elementary grade supervisors is largest in the north-central states. Music supervisors are employed by more cities than any other special supervisor, viz., 83 percent. Art supervisors

TABLE IV

SUPERVISORS EMPLOYED BY 171 SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN CITIES RANGING IN SIZE FROM 10,000 TO 20,000 DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO GEOGRAPHICAL SECTIONS

Supervisory	Number of Systems Employed									
	East		North-Central		South		West		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Full time supervising principals[a]	105	.....	87	.....	68	.....	38	.....	298	.....
Part time supervising principals[a]	85	.....	102	.....	80	.....	34	.....	301	.....
Full time teaching principals[a]	223	.....	207	.....	50	.....	16	.....	496	.....
Elementary grade supervisors	8	12	24	35	7	23	3	25	42	25
Art supervisors	45	74	38	56	10	33	11	91	104	60
Music supervisors	50	86	58	85	22	73	12	100	142	83
Penmanship supervisors	10	16	17	25	4	13	4	33	35	20
Physical education supervisors	43	67	40	58	6	20	9	75	98	57
Art and writing supervisors	.....	.....	3	4	1	3	1	8	5	3
Primary supervisors	.....	.....	6	9	.....	.....	1	8	7	4
Writing and arithmetic supervisors	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	.....	.....	1	6
School nurses	23	38	31	44	2	6	7	59	63	36
High-school principals	60	99	60	87	28	93	12	100	160	94
Junior high-school principals	18	30	26	38	13	43	8	67	65	38
Superintendents	61	100	68	100	30	100	12	100	171	100

[a] Percentages not available.

follow, being employed by 60 percent of the systems; while 57 percent provide supervisors of physical education. Art and physical education supervisors are employed by a larger proportion of cities in the east than in the north-central section.

MISCELLANEOUS SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

Superintendents were asked not to include special teachers in the secondary schools having no supervisory relationship to the elementary schools. No account is taken in this study of supervisors of special subjects in junior and senior high schools, such as industrial arts, home economics, visual education, and agriculture. Manual training or industrial art supervisors were reported by eight cities; home economics by ten; dental hygienists by two; visual education, one; elementary science, one; vocational subjects, one; medical inspector, one; dean of girls, one; director of curriculum, one. It was felt that in these cases the numbers were so small as to make a special study of the work done by such supervisors of doubtful value. Ayer reports 52 supervisors of academic subjects employed by 44 cities above 100,000 population in 1923.[2] This is not a large number, but it is evident that such supervisors are employed even more rarely in the smaller systems. So-called supervisors of academic subjects in these cities are, probably in most cases, heads of departments with varying degrees of supervisory responsibility. In the field of the regular subjects in the elementary schools, only one supervisor is reported, a combination writing and arithmetic supervisor. Penmanship supervisors are employed in 20 percent of the systems. General elementary grade supervisors are found in 25 percent of the cities.

It is not certain whether the number of cities employing nurses is complete. It was found that school systems which sent directories, listed school nurses in their directories but did not in all cases report them on the form provided. This may perhaps be attributable to the more or less common feeling that the school nurse is not a supervisor. To guard against this situation nurses were specifically mentioned in the list of supervisors on the form. In any case 36 percent reported the employment of school nurses. By far the largest percentage of these cities were in the north-central and western sections.

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[2] Ayer, Fred C. *Studies in Administrative Research,* Seattle Public Schools, page 4.

THE SUPERVISORY STAFF IN INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL SYSTEMS

While generally school systems in these cities employ supervisors of art, music, and physical education, there is great variety in the personnel of supervisory staffs found in the several cities (Table V). There seems to be some tendency for more uniformity in the eastern sections than in the other parts of the country. A staff made up of supervisors of art, music, and physical education is found in nearly one-fifth of the eastern cities. With the addition of a school nurse, one-third of the eastern cities are accounted for. There seems to be greater variations in practice in all the other sections. The south shows the largest proportion of cities without special supervisory officers of any kind. Where only one special supervisor is employed, that one is a music supervisor, except in the case of one city which employs a handwriting supervisor as its only specialist.

TABLE V

DISTRIBUTION OF 171 CITIES ACCORDING TO PERSONNEL OF SUPERVISORY STAFF EMPLOYED

Supervisory Staff Membership	Geographical Section and Frequency					
	East	North-Central	South	West	Number	Percent
M	4	2	6	.....	12	7
MA	2	1	2	.....	5	3
MP	3	2	1	.....	6	4
MN	2	1	.....	.....	3	2
AP	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.7
MAP	11	5	1	3	20	12
MAN	4	4	1	2	11	6
MPN	2	2	.....	.....	4	2
MAPN	10	7	1	3	21	12
MAPH	3	6	.....	.....	9	5
MAPHN	5	1	.....	1	7	4
MAPG	8	7	2	.....	17	10
MAPGHN	.....	6	1	1	8	5
MGN	.....	8	.....	.....	8	5
MPHN	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.7
MAH	.....	1	2	1	4	2
MAHN	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.7
MGP	.....	1	.....	.....	1	.7
MAG	.....	2	.....	.....	2	1
G	.....	.....	2	.....	2	1
MG	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.7
MH	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.7
H	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.7
None	6	10	8	.....	24	14
Total	61	68	30	12	171	100

M—Music; A—Art; P—Physical education; H—Handwriting; G—General elementary grade supervisor; N—Nurse; Primary and a few other supervisors who were not especially studied are not included.

The great variety of combinations found is indicative of the uncertainty as to the most desirable types of organization. There is no reason to believe that cities entirely without special supervisors lack them because of the force of circumstances. Eight superintendents make comments, questioning the desirability of the whole procedure of employing special supervisors. Some superintendents report that certain supervisors have been employed but discontinued. Others hope to add special supervisors of one kind or another.

BUILDING PRINCIPALS AS SUPERVISORS

Nearly one-half of the elementary school principals in these cities are full-time teachers (Table IV). Sectional differences do not seem to be significant. There is a smaller proportion of full-time supervising principals in the north-central cities, which, it was thought, might be due to the larger number of elementary grade supervisors employed by these cities (Table VI). However, a study of individual cases causes one to doubt such a relationship. On the one hand, it is true that of the twenty-four general elementary grade supervisors in the north-central section, nine are employed by Minnesota cities. Of these, eight have only full-time teaching principals. But when the remaining fifteen cities with general supervisors are studied, we find four have only full-time teaching principals, three have only part-time supervising principals, one only full-time supervising principals, while seven have various combinations of these. Evidently

TABLE VI

DISTRIBUTION OF THREE TYPES OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO THE ENROLLMENTS OF THE BUILDINGS FOR WHICH THEY ARE RESPONSIBLE
(North Central Section Only)

Building Enrollment	Type of Principal					
	Full-time Supervising		Part-time Supervising		Full-time Teaching	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Less than 100	.....	.....	3	3	24	12
100–300	22	27.5	50	50	124	61
300– 600	42	52.5	41	41	55	27
600–1,000	16	20	6	6	1	.....
Total	80	100	100	100	204	100
Median	412		291		230	

the employment or non-employment of a general elementary supervisor is determined by factors other than the degree to which building principals are given time for supervision.

SIZE OF BUILDING AS A FACTOR

It was brought out earlier in this chapter that small elementary school buildings predominate in these cities. Table VI shows the relationship between size of building, as expressed in enrollment, and the time given the principal for supervision. This relationship is substantiated by a study made by the Elementary Principal's Section of the National Education Association. According to that investigation, the median enrollment of schools with teaching principals was 287, while that for schools with non-teaching principals was 510.[3] It is pointed out, however, that there are a large number

TABLE VII

DISTRIBUTION OF 171 CITIES ACCORDING TO PRACTICES IN CONNECTION WITH TYPES OF PRINCIPALS EMPLOYED, 1928

Practice	Geographical Section and Frequency								Total No.	Percent
	East		North-Central		South		West			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Employ only principals giving full time to teaching	10	16	23	33	2	7	.....	.....	35	20
Employ only principals giving part time to teaching	8	13	14	20	8	27	1	8	31	18
Employ only principals who do no teaching	8	13	8	12	9	33	.....	.....	25	15
Employ some non-teaching and some part-time teaching principals	6	10	5	7	3	10	3	25	17	10
Employ some full-time teaching and some non-teaching principals	9	15	3	4	3	10	1	8	16	9
Employ some part-time teaching and some full-time teaching principals	10	16	5	7	2	7	2	17	19	11
Employ some full-time, some part-time, and some non-teaching principals	6	10	6	8	3	10	5	42	20	12
No data	4	7	4	6	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	5
Totals	61	100	68	100	30	100	12	100	171	100

[3] *Seventh Yearbook*, Department of Elementary School Principals, page 285.

of teaching principals even in buildings enrolling 500 pupils or more. Thus, while the buildings with full-time supervising principals have larger median enrollments, it will be seen that a considerable number of very small buildings have full time supervising principals. It would seem, therefore, that while size of building is an important factor in the situation, administration policy also enters in. Since the number of large buildings is very small, there is little basis on which to study practice in such buildings. In Table VII various practices in the employment of principals are shown. A city apparently may have all full-time teaching principals, all part-time teaching, all full-time supervising principals, or any combination of these types. The city may have any or all types of principals, irrespective of varying building sizes. It may have principals who teach full time in large buildings or principals who have no teaching duties in small buildings.

In spite of such variations as a result of administrative policy, the size of building is a factor of such magnitude as to merit serious attention. In commenting on the situation, the Elementary Principal's Yearbook Committee makes the following statement:

"The committee believes this situation (that of the small proportion of supervising principals) to be inherent in the small school. The existence of small enrollment in a community is likely to hinder the development of a corps of trained and professionally minded supervising principals. Small schools may be necessary in certain situations due to sparsity of population or a number of other factors. Too often, however, such schools under teaching principals are the outcome of the short sighted pressure of patrons anxious to have a school building in the immediate neighborhood. A wiser policy is to recognize the desirability of the school enrolling from 800 to 1,000 or more, and to locate buildings of this type so that all homes will be within reasonable distance of such a building. The success of the movement to develop the professional office of the supervising principal will to a large extent depend upon the leadership of superintendents and school boards in educating school patrons as to the desirability of the larger as opposed to the small school unit."[4]

INFLUENCE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S TRAINING

It was thought that training might be a factor in the extent to which principals were given time for supervision. However, as is shown in a later chapter, part-time teaching principals have as high a median level of training as full-time supervising principals. Part-time teaching principals also have a larger total educational experience than full-time supervising principals.

[4] *Ibid.*, page 291.

THE TYPICAL SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

The typical city in this group employs an art supervisor, a music supervisor, and a physical education supervisor. It employs a high-school principal and gives him no teaching duties. The city employs six elementary school principals with varying proportions of time for teaching and supervision. The teaching load carried by these principals depends somewhat on the size of the buildings for which they are responsible, but probably as much on the policy of the school system. The teaching load carried by principals is more or less independent of their training and experience, and seems likewise uninfluenced by the number, kind, or combinations of special supervisory officers employed.

IMPLICATIONS OF PRESENT ORGANIZATIONS

It seems evident that the whole problem of the supervisory organization best adapted to the needs of city school systems of this size is more or less unsolved. On the one hand are systems employing as many as six different kinds of special supervisors, while on the other hand are those who have none. With these various combinations of specialists, are groups of principals with widely varying supervisory status. Just what is the relative justification for the various special supervisors has probably not been determined. In terms of practice, music supervisors seem to have been thought of as being more necessary than art or physical education supervisors. In these cities if a school system has only one special supervisor, that one is almost invariably a music supervisor. Just what is the relative need for special supervisors of art and physical education? In terms of practice it would seem to be, roughly, the same. Just why is it more essential to have a special supervisor of physical education than one of reading, or nature study, or arithmetic?

The supervisory role played by principals is without doubt in a process of development. Size of elementary school buildings seems to be a factor of some importance in this connection. The most desirable size of elementary school building is dependent upon a number of factors, such as distances which children can be asked to walk to school, and the needs of an effective school organization. The size of building which justifies a full-time supervising principal has not been determined. Neither is there data concerning the relative merits of a type of organization with a general supervisor and full-time teaching principals and a type with no such supervisor and full-time supervising principals.

CHAPTER IV

The Training and Experience of Supervisory Officers

It is the purpose of this section of the study to provide a description of the supervisory personnel in cities of 10,000 to 20,000 population. This description includes data concerning initial training, experience, and efforts at professional growth and advancement. Since the supervisor is or should be engaged in stimulating professional interest on the part of the teaching group, the supervisor's own training and efforts at self-improvement have considerable significance. Throughout this discussion as much emphasis has been placed upon various indices of professional interest and growth as upon exact levels of training.

THE TRAINING OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

In treating the data on the training of superintendents, two summer sessions have been considered as the equivalent of one quarter of university attendance. The attainment of the Master's degree has been considered as the equivalent of three quarters of university work. When compared with the results secured by Douglass, there seems to have been some increase in the number of superintendents who have attained the level of training represented by the Master's degree.[1] Douglass reports about 47 percent with this degree, while the present study reports 55 percent.

The actual attainment of a degree may not be an accurate measure of the efforts at further training. Summer school attendance or resident study during the school year may result in substantial increments of training, but not necessarily in the attainment of a degree. In order to determine the amount of this sort of training, the number of quarters of training beyond a four-year college or university course has been tabulated. Only 16 percent of the superintendents have no work beyond the four-year course. It is of interest to note that 62 percent have five years of training.

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[1] Douglass, B. C., *Professional and Economic Status of the City Superintendent of Schools in the United States,* page 35.

SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

It was believed that one indication of the efforts made at professional training is the amount of summer school attendance. The number of superintendents who have attended one, two, and three summer sessions in the last five years is the same 13 per hundred as given in (Table VIII). Of the total number 47 percent, or nearly half, have attended one or more summer terms in the last five years. It was hoped to show some relationship between the possession of a particular degree and summer school attendance. The number failing to give dates of degrees or of summer school attendance was, however, so large as to render any conclusions impossible. The question is, do superintendents who have secured a Master's degree rest at that point in their training, or do they continue further training either in the same ratio or in one which is increased or decreased? In so far as data are available, there is no reason to believe that securing a Master's degree effects in any manner the superintendent's further efforts at training. With existing emphasis on the Master's degree as a qualification, summer school attendance by superintendents with a Bachelor's degree may reflect in some instances a desire to meet standards rather than a genuine professional interest. Can it be assumed that summer school attendance, by those who have already met the qualifications, is a better index of professional interest? In order to answer many of these questions, more exact data, in terms of dates of training and many other factors, are necessary.

TABLE VIII

DISTRIBUTION OF 100 SUPERINTENDENTS ACCORDING TO SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Number of Summer Sessions Attended in Last Five Years	Number and Percent
1	13
2	13
3	13
4	8
None	53
Total	100

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S EXPERIENCE

The striking characteristic of the superintendent's experience is its length; the median total experience given is nearly 23 years (Table IX). This is even higher than that found by Douglass,[2] who reports a median of 21.3.

[2] Douglass, B. C., *Op. cit.*, page 53.

TABLE IX

DISTRIBUTION OF 100 CITY SUPERINTENDENTS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING AND ADMINISTRATIVE WORK, 1927-1928

Years	Number			
	Teaching	Principal-ship	Superintend-ency	Total
0	34*	23	0	.....
1	2	1	2	.....
2	14	8	5	.....
3	7	6	5	.....
4	10	6	3	.....
5–10	20	24	20	3
10–15	8	15	26	11
15–20	4	11	14	22
20–25	1	5	10	23
25–30	.....	1	9	16
30–35	.....	.....	4	15
35–40	.....	.....	2	5
40–45	.....	.....	.....	3
45–50	.....	.....	.....	2
Totals	100	100	100	100
Medians	3	6.25	13	23

*This item includes superintendents who began in positions reported as principalships, superintendencies, and others not listed as teaching positions. It seems likely that in many cases such positions involved some teaching.

As shown by both of these studies, the typical superintendent of schools in these cities has a total of nearly ten years of educational

TABLE X

POSITIONS FROM WHICH 100 SUPERINTENDENTS WERE PROMOTED TO THE SUPERINTENDENCY

Position	1928	Douglass (1923)
High-school principalship	69	61.94
Began as superintendents	17	3.90
Elementary school principalship	2	20.98
Assistant superintendency	3	.....
State superintendency	1	1.46
State agent	1	.....
County superintendency	2	.....
Normal school teaching	3	3.42
Supervisor	2	.....
Teacher	.....	7.21
Total	100	100.00

experience when he becomes a superintendent. He has from twelve to thirteen years of experience before he reaches the superintendency in a city of the size included here. The typical superintendent is thus a man of considerable maturity, who has served a long apprenticeship in various educational capacities.

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S MANNER OF ENTRANCE INTO HIS POSITION

In view of the long experience shown above, it becomes of interest to know from what educational positions the typical administrator secures a superintendency. Table X summarizes the replies of superintendents in the present study and gives for comparative purposes the answers reported by Douglass. It appears that the typical route to the superintendency in cities of this size is through a high-school principalship, 69 percent having reached their positions as superintendents in this manner. In about two-thirds of the cases promotion occurs within the system, that is, the high-school principal is promoted to the superintendency. In other cases the high-school principal in one city becomes superintendent in another. It is interesting to note that 17 percent of these superintendents, having attained a small town superintendency, left it to become high-school principals in a somewhat larger city, later to be promoted to positions as superintendents either in their own or in another city.

There is an apparent discrepancy between the number of superintendents who secured their positions from elementary principalships as reported by Douglass and as shown by the present study. It seems likely that this may grow out of a misinterpretation of categories. For instance, it may be that many of the elementary principalships from which these superintendents reported that they came to superintendents, were in reality small town superintendencies but were called principalships. It will be noted that in the 1923 study, a smaller percentage are listed as men who began as superintendents without first becoming principals.

Whatever may be the desirability of the situation, it seems that the high-school principalship is the "royal road" to the superintendency in cities of this size. It was believed that the situation possibly was undergoing a change. For this reason the recency of promotions from high-school principalships to superintendencies was determined and summarized (Table XI). There seems to be no tendency for these promotions to be decreasing in number; roughly there have been as many promotions in the last five-year period as in the two previous five-year periods. In the two most recent periods, the larger number of advancements probably has been due to the dropping out

of some of those superintendents who were promoted at a more remote date.

TABLE XI

DISTRIBUTION OF 69 SUPERINTENDENTS REACHING THEIR POSITIONS FROM HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIPS ACCORDING TO THE RECENCY OF THEIR PROMOTIONS FROM HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALSHIPS

Recency	Number	Percent
1 year ago	2	2.9
2 years ago	5	7.2
3 years ago	3	4.4
4 years ago	3	4.4
5 to 10 years ago	23	33.3
10 to 15 years ago	14	20.2
15 to 20 years ago	5	7.3
20 to 25 years ago	9	13.0
25 to 30 years ago	3	4.4
No data	2	2.9
Total	69	100.0

An attempt was likewise made to determine whether or not the number who began as superintendents was increasing from year to year. A distribution was made of those who began as superintendents according to years of experience (Table XII). All of those who began as superintendents have fifteen or more years of experience. In some instances they "grew up" with towns as the latter increased in size. In a few instances they began in a small town and were promoted step by step to larger communities. In general, however, the latter procedure is the exception rather than the rule. Unless the situation in the future for some reason is altered, the young man who begins as a superintendent of schools in a town of 500 people,

TABLE XII

DISTRIBUTION OF 17 SUPERINTENDENTS WHO BEGAN THEIR EDUCATIONAL WORK AS SUPERINTENDENTS, ACCORDING TO YEARS OF TOTAL EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Number
1–15	
15–20	3
20–25	2
25–30	5
30–35	5
35–40	2
Total	17

and hopes by degrees to be promoted to the superintendency in a city of 10,000 to 20,000 population is taking a course in which the chances are against him. As judged by the experience of the men who now hold these positions, *the* way to a superintendency is through a high-school principalship. A high-school principal's chance of being superintendent in his own system is somewhat better than that of reaching the superintendency in another community.

THE PRINCIPALS OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

When distributions are made of elementary school principals according to training, bi-modal distributions result, with modes at the two- and the four-year level. Elementary school principals were classified into two groups, those doing no teaching and those giving part time to teaching. The median training of those giving part-time to teaching is the same as that of the non-teaching principals. It was thought that this might be due to an influx of younger and better-trained principals who were working through the part-time supervisory principalships into the full-time positions. This can hardly be true because the median total experience of part-time principals is higher than that of full-time principals by four years. The suggestion is rather that the younger, better-trained principals have been employed for the larger and more important full-time supervising principalships.

TABLE XIII

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF TRAINING BEYOND HIGH SCHOOL

Years	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary*	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	4	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....
1	9	1	.....	.....	3	1	2
2	49	4	1	15	12	15	18
3	20	2	2	2	9	6	6
4	43	24	45	11	25	34	22
5	14	13	28	3	2	10	5
6	.....	1	3	.....	1	1	1
7	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	1
10	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....
Total	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Median	3.3	4.7	4.8	3	4.1	4.3	

*Non-teaching principals only.

DEGREES ATTAINED

When it comes to degrees attained, however, (Table XIV) 31 percent of principals who do no teaching have attained the Bachelor's degree; while only 25 percent of those who teach part-time have attained this degree. Principals with Bachelor's degrees who do no teaching have a median experience of sixteen years, while those without degrees have a median experience of slightly more than twenty years. This suggests that the possession of a degree, or the training represented by it, is somewhat of a substitute for a certain amount of experience as a qualification for a principalship.

TABLE XIV

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO DEGREES HELD

Degree	Number							
	Part-time Elementary Principals		Full-time Elementary Principals		Junior High-School Principals		High-School Principals	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
None	70	74.5	96	69.1	10	22.2	11	13.8
A. B.	21	22.3	34	24.4	24	53.3	40	50.0
M. A.	3	3.2	9	6.5	11	24.5	29	36.2
Total	94	100.0	139	100.0	45	100.0	80	100.0

EXPERIENCE

Considering both types of elementary school principals, it may be said that the typical principal has nearly twenty years of educational experience. As is shown in Table XV, this typical principal was a teacher for seven years before becoming a principal, thus having been a principal for about thirteen years. Approximately two-thirds of the full-time supervising principals have reached their positions through promotion within the system in which they are now principals. The other one-third came to their present positions as principals from other school systems. In the latter case, 75 percent have been principals in other cities.

PRACTICE IN SELECTION

It is evident that the predominating practice in the selection of elementary school principals in these cities is to promote teachers already within the system. If this is not done, principals from other cities are selected. Rarely are teachers in other cities offered principalships. Only nine such cases are reported among 139 principals.

TABLE XV

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS TEACHERS PREVIOUS TO BEING A SUPERVISOR

Years	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary*	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	30	9	22	2	28	57	43
1	4	.....	2	.....	3	1	1
2	5	3	9	.....	1	.....	1
3	9	3	7	.....	1	1	1
4	4	6	5	1	2	.....	2
5–10	36	9	17	10	13	9	5
10–15	23	10	11	13	4	2	.....
15–20	14	2	4	1	1	.....	.....
20–25	7	1	3	2	1	.....	.....
25–30	3	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
30–35	3	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....
35–40	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Total	139	45	80	31	54	70	53
Median	7.2	6.2	4	11	.....	.....	.....

* Non-teaching principals only.

Even in these cases it may be that a number of them actually came to their present school systems as teachers but did not so report. In many instances these principals report long experience in their present positions. It is entirely likely that the earlier years of this experience were spent in a teaching position from which they were promoted to a principalship. In terms of the data here presented, it would seem that a classroom teacher in a city of any size stands practically no chance of being employed as an elementary grade principal in some other city of from 10,000 to 20,000. If a teacher desires such a position, she must reach it from a teaching position within some school system. Only with such experience is she able to go to another school system as a principal. Two-thirds of the 139 principals included here are holding their first position as principals. In a large proportion of the cases, it will probably be the only such position held.

MEN AND WOMEN PRINCIPALS

In this connection it is interesting to note differences between the training and experience of men and women principals. Of the

TABLE XVI

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AS SUPERVISORS

Years	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary*	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
1	5	1	4	5	4	5	4
2	8	3	4	3	2	5	5
3	7	3	7	1	5	6	7
4	3	4	10	7	2	3	6
5–10	33	8	21	8	17	30	21
10–15	28	15	12	4	10	14	8
15–20	24	8	11	2	8	1	3
20–25	12	1	6	.....	2	3	.....
25–30	5	1	.....	1	2	1	.....
30–35	11	1	3	.....	2	.....	1
35–40	3	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
40–50	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	12.2	11.2	8.5	5	9.3	7.53	8.2

* Non-teaching principals only.

total of 139 non-teaching principals, forty-nine, or slightly more than one-third, are men. The latter have better training; exactly one-half of them have a Bachelor's or a higher degree. In fact, the degrees held by the men account for two-thirds of the total number of academic degrees held by these principals. Only about 16 percent of the women principals have academic degrees. The men have less experience; the typical man principal has taught only five years before becoming a principal. He has been a principal for slightly less than ten years, while his typical woman colleague has held a principalship for twelve years. His total educational experience is approximately five years less than that of the typical woman principal. Ordinarily he has not been promoted to his present position from a teaching position within the system, but in 75 percent of the cases has been selected from the staff of another school system, where in 85 percent of the instances he has already been a principal. Thus, it is that of forty principals who have received their positions from other school systems, only seven are women. Women principals have uniformly been elementary grade teachers, while men have been recruited from a wide variety of fields as is shown by the following:

From rural school teaching	7
County superintendency	3
District superintendency	1
High-school principalship	3
Assistant principalship	2
High-school teaching	9
Small town superintendency	5
Junior high-school teaching	6
Junior high-school principalship	3
Grade teaching	4
Began as principal	6
Total	49

More than half of the positions from which the men principals came were those in which the greater part of their teaching was done in the secondary school field. At the same time, while they have predominantly secured their present principalships from similar positions in other cities, their first principalship was secured, in more than three-fourths of the instances, in a town other than the one in which they had secured their immediate previous experience.

TABLE XVII

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO TOTAL YEARS OF EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE

Years	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary*	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
1	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4	5
2	3	.....	.....	.....	2	3	4
3	4	1	.....	.....	5	5	5
4	5	1	11	.....	2	3	7
5–10	16	4	22	6	16	29	16
10–15	20	9	12	9	16	16	9
15–20	20	15	10	7	1	3	5
20–25	30	4	12	.....	1	3	2
25–30	16	7	5	4	3	1	.....
30–35	15	1	6	3	3	1	1
35–40	7	1	2	2	1	.....	1
40–45	2	2	.....	.....	.....	2	.....
45–50	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	20	17.5	13	15.5	9.3	8.3	7

* Non-teaching principals only.

PROFESSIONAL DESTINATIONS

The number of elementary school principals who did not indicate their professional destination is striking when compared with the number of secondary school principals who failed to supply similar data (Table XVIII). The number of men failing to give this information is as large as the number of women failing to give it. The median total experience of the principals who do supply the information is somewhat higher than that of those who do not. However, the differences are probably not significant. The number and percent of principals giving their intention to remain in their present positions is directly proportional to the level of their positions.

TABLE XVIII

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS ACCORDING TO PROFESSIONAL DESTINATION

Destination	Number of Principals							
	Part-time Elementary		Full-time Elementary		Junior High School		High School	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Superintendent	8	8.5	12	8	16	35.6	10	12.5
High school principal	2	2.1	3	2	2	4.4	47	58.8
Junior high principal	6	6.4	9	6	13	28.9	.....	.....
Elementary principal	15	16.0	33	24	.....	.....	.....	.....
College or university teacher	2	2.1	4	3.5	1	2.2	3	3.8
Others	3	3.2	6	4.5	2	4.4	5	6.2
None given	58	61.7	72	52	11	24.4	15	18.7
Total	94	100.0	139	100.0	45	100.0	80	100.0

EDUCATIONAL COURSES PURSUED

An effort was made to secure information concerning the supervision courses which were taken by these principals in training institutions. The replies, however, are so vague and irregularly stated that a meaningful summary is impossible. The number of summer school sessions attended was thought to be one indication of the professional interest of the various supervisory groups. Principals who do part-time teaching have attended, on an average, one summer term less than those who have full-time supervision (Table XIX). Approximately 44 percent of all elementary school principals included have never attended a single summer school session. This is, roughly, the same percentage as for high-school principals. There seems to be no reason to believe that the possession of four years of

training with a degree obtained by high-school principals has increased their professional interest, if such interest can be measured by extent of summer school attendance. The striving on the part of elementary school principals for a degree or its equivalent in training may be one reason why they attend summer school to the extent that they do.

TABLE XIX

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF TERMS OF SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDED

Numbers of Summer Terms	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary*	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	52	12	26	3	19	21	22
1	16	7	11	7	7	7	8
2	12	5	14	6	8	9	14
3	21	10	13	8	7	13	6
4	8	5	9	3	5	8	3
5	10	5	1	2	4	6	.....
6	9	.....	5	1	1	2	1
7–12	11	1	.....	1	3	4	1
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	2.1	2.6	2.2	3	2	2	1

* Non-teaching principals only.

THE SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

The training and experience of special supervisors are a marked contrast to those of the principals with whom they share supervisory responsibility in the elementary schools. In general, they have entered their supervisory positions without previous teaching experience. They have held supervisory positions for a period of about eight years, which is approximately their median total experience. In years of training they are superior to the principals, the median being slightly in excess of four years for all special supervisors except penmanship (Table XXV). Examination of Tables XV, XVI, and XVII shows that the outstanding differences are between special supervisors of all subjects, and principals and general supervisors, rather than among various subject specialists.

TRAINING

It was hoped to secure data on the nature of the training possessed by such special supervisors as regards education and supervision courses pursued. While, roughly, half of the special supervisors report that they have taken courses in supervision, it is impossible to draw conclusions as to the nature of such training. The lack of common course title terminology, the loose use of the word "supervision," and other factors contribute to the difficulty of securing a complete picture of the training situation. As an illustration of this difficulty the description of the data on professional training of music supervisors is shown below.

NATURE OF TRAINING TAKEN BY MUSIC SUPERVISORS

Number reporting courses in psychology	14
Number reporting courses in education	11
Number reporting courses in methods	12
Number reporting courses in supervision	2
Number reporting courses in music	1
"All supervision courses"	1
"Public School music methods"	1
"Regular courses"	1
"Music"	1
"Organ"	1
"Choir"	1
"Regular Supervisor's Course"	1
"Courses required for degree"	1
No report	22
Total	70

Supervisors were asked to list their education and supervision courses and give the number of credit hours for each course. This evidently proved too great a task. Large numbers left the spaces blank. Others said they could not remember. Again there were many who described the courses taken in terminology that was almost meaningless as to the nature or content of the courses. Some gave the total number of hours in supervision of education, or both, without distributing the amounts between courses. The situation shown here with reference to music supervisors is typical of the replies of all supervisory officers. It seems evident that, if information concerning the exact nature of training is desired, it must be secured through some procedure other than the one employed in this study. It may be that recall played too large a part in the process. In any case, this part of the data was very unsatisfactory.

INSTITUTIONS IN WHICH SPECIAL SUPERVISORS HAVE BEEN TRAINED

The numbers of art, music, and physical education supervisors trained in the various types of institutions were tabulated, and the

results are presented in Table XX. Private schools offering special subjects, together with normal schools, train half of the special supervisors. Many of these supervisors have had, of course, one or more summer school terms at universities. These data refer to initial training. In the case of music supervisors, a considerable percentage are trained by small liberal arts colleges. In fact, more are trained in these institutions than by any other single training agency. Universities are slowly entering the field of training the special supervisor. Less than 15 percent of the special supervisors on which data are available are, in greater part, university trained. To what extent are we warranted in assuming that the small colleges, private special schools, and normal schools are equipped to provide training for supervision? Does the private special school prepare its students for teaching, in method and procedure, or does it train primarily in skills of performance in the subject and in its science? Does the normal school train teachers of special subjects who, because of the force of circumstances, become supervisors, or does it really train for supervision? Does the liberal arts college generally train teachers or supervisors of music or musicians of more or less skill?

TABLE XX

DISTRIBUTION OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS ACCORDING TO TYPE OF INSTITUTION IN WHICH THEY RECEIVED THEIR TRAINING

Institution	Percent			
	Art	Music	Physical Education	Total
None[a]	3.7	7.1	.....	3.9
College	9.2	27.1	12.7	17.3
Private schools[b]	20.4	22.9	31.0	24.6
Normal schools	31.5	20.0	23.6	24.6
Universities	16.6	12.9	9.1	12.8
Industrial art schools	1.9	2.9	.....	1.7
Incomplete data	16.7	7.1	23.6	15.1
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a] This refers to those whose entire training has been in summer sessions and institutes.

[b] Private schools of art, music, physical education.

SUMMER SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

Special supervisors have a somewhat better record for summer school attendance than have elementary grade principals (Table XIX). There is a smaller percentage of them who have not attended at least

one summer school session. In physical education the men have a better record of summer school attendance than the women.

PROFESSIONAL READING

It was thought that the professional periodicals read by various supervisory officers might be one indication of the nature of their professional interests. For this reason all supervisors were asked to name the professional magazines which they read regularly. While individual reports of this kind are probably open to some error, the differences in the reading of the various groups, as reported, would seem significant.

The outstanding difference between the reading reported by special supervisors and that reported by superintendents and principals is in the amount of reading in general education. Below are listed, for each type of supervisor, the magazines which were reported as being regularly read by 10 percent or more of the group.

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF SUPERINTENDENTS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
School Board Journal	70
Elementary School Journal	42
Journal of N.E.A.	39
State Journals	38
School Review	35
Educational Digest	32
Journal of Educational Research	19
The Nation's Schools	17
Teachers College Record	17
Journal of Education	15
Journal of Educational Method	13
Normal Instructor	10

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
Journal of N.E.A.	57
School and Society	45
State Journals	45
School Review	21
Teachers College Record	17
School Board Journal	29
American Educational Digest	25
High-School Teacher	13
Educational Review	13
Science and Mathematics	10

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
Journal of N.E.A.	54
Elementary School Journal	47

State Journals	42
Normal Instructor	35
Journal of Educational Method	16
Teachers College Record	13
Primary Plans	11
School Board Journal	11
Journal of Educational Research	10
Primary Education	10
Journal of Education	10

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF MUSIC SUPERVISORS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
Music Supervisors Journal	60
Musical America	52
State Journals	32
Supervisor's Service Bulletin	24
Journal of N.E.A.	23
The Etude	20
School Music	19
Music Bulletin	18
Music and Youth	15

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF ART SUPERVISORS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
School Arts	88
Everyday Art	42
State Journals	32
Journal of N.E.A.	22
Normal Instructor	18
International Studio	16
Keramic Design	16
Industrial Art	14

PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS READ BY 10 PERCENT OR MORE OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION SUPERVISORS

Periodical	Percent Reporting
American Physical Education Review	56
Mind and Body	44
State Journals	34
Journal of N.E.A.	32
Hygeia	20
Athletic Journal	18
None Reported	10
Playground Magazine	10
Physical Culture	10

Not a single general education periodical is listed by as many as 5 percent of any group of special supervisors. It will be seen that all the magazines reported by 10 percent or more of the special supervisors are along the line of their special subject, with the exception of the state and national education association journals. *The Elementary School Journal,* which is read widely by elementary school principals and superintendents, was reported by only one art supervisor, one music supervisor, and one physical education supervisor. Only 10 percent of all the music supervisors report that they read regularly

any general educational magazine. This is equally true of art supervisors. Only five physical education supervisors reported that they read any general education magazine. No two of these five reported the same periodical.

If the reports of the supervisors actually describe the situation, the reading done along professional lines by special supervisors is almost entirely confined to their special subject. Educational developments in other elementary school subjects in so far as they are made available through general educational magazines, are evidently not reaching the special supervisor. If the professional reading reported here is indicative of the interest of the various groups, such interest on the part of special supervisors is confined to their special subject. Conversely it must be said that no general supervisory officer reported the regular reading of a magazine devoted to school music, art, or physical education. It must be said for the reading of superintendents and principals, however, that it does include a considerable number of the general education magazines.

THE SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Junior and senior high-school principals present only slight differences in amounts of training (Table XIII). Junior high-school principals have had more teaching experience before becoming principals, have had longer experience as principals, and have had a greater total experience in educational work. The median total experience as shown is 17.5 years, while that of the four-year high-school principals is only 13 years (Table XVII).

EXPERIENCE

It is, however, when their professional background is examined in detail, that the greatest differences become apparent (Table XVI). The typical junior high-school principal was promoted to his position from an elementary school principalship or a teaching position within the system (Table XXI). On the other hand, the typical high-school principal was promoted to his present position from some other school system. While the typical junior high-school principal is holding his first principalship of a junior high school, the typical four-year high-school principal is holding his second principalship. The four-year high-school principal secured his first principalship by moving to a different system in four-fifths of the cases. While in the elementary schools the common procedure is to fill a principalship by promoting a teacher, in the high school this is rarely done. Apparently the small

high school fills such a position by selecting a high-school teacher from some other city. As the city grows larger, it fills, to an increasing extent, such a position through the selection of a person who has already had experience as a high-school principal in another city.

TABLE XXI

COMPARING POSITIONS FROM WHICH JUNIOR HIGH- AND HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS SECURE THEIR PRINCIPALSHIPS

Item	Number			
	Junior High School		High School	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
From				
Elementary principalship	18	40	7	9
Elementary teaching	2	2	.....	.....
High-school principalship	4	9	27	34
High-school teaching	7	16	31	36
Assistant principal	1	2	1	1
Superintendency	10	22	7	9
Junior high teaching	3	7	.....	.....
Junior high-school principalship	.....	.....	5	6
President of normal school	.....	.....	1	1
Private school	.....	.....	1	1
Totals	45		80	
Promoted within system	24	53	31	36
Promoted from other systems	20	44	49	63
First principalship secured through promotion in system	20	49	17	21

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES DESIGNED TO PROMOTE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

TEACHER SELECTION

In the selection of teachers a considerable variety of practice is shown in these systems. In slightly more than half of the cities teachers are selected by the superintendent and the board committee (Table XXII). Just what part is played in this selection by the committee is, of course, not known. It is probable that it ranges all the way from a perfunctory approval to actual participation in the selection of teachers. It is of interest, however, to note that more than one-third of the superintendents feel that they are free to select teachers alone without interference from any agency. About one-fourth of them consult the principals in making selections. Seeking the advice of principals seems to be somewhat more common in the

high schools than in the elementary schools. This is in agreement with data presented elsewhere in this study. Elementary school principals indicate that they have a smaller part in the administration of the schools than do high-school principals. Only 15 percent of the superintendents consider the judgments of special supervisors in reemployment of teachers.

TABLE XXII

PRACTICE IN TEACHER SELECTION IN 100 CITIES FROM 10,000 TO 20,000 POPULATION

Practice	Percent	
	Elementary School	High School
Teachers selected by board of education without consulting superintendent or principal	1	1
Teachers selected by board committee without consulting superintendent or principal	.....	.....
Selected by superintendent and committee of board	52	42
Selected by principals and committee of board	.....	.....
Selected by superintendent alone	34	26
Selected by superintendent with advice of principals	23	28
Selected by superintendent with advice of supervisor	14	9
Judgment of special supervisors (art, music, etc.) considered in reëmployment of teachers	15	14
Selected by principals with advice of superintendent	1	2
Selected by principals alone	.....	.....

SALARY SCHEDULES

Eighty percent of these systems have salary schedules based on training and experience (Table XXIII). Twenty percent report a

TABLE XXIII

PRACTICES IN THE USE OF THE SALARY SCHEDULE TO STIMULATE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AS REPORTED BY 100 CITIES

Practice	Percent
No salary schedule	6
Schedule based on training alone	.....
Schedule based on training and experience	80
Schedule based on experience alone	8
Single salary schedule in force	20
Salary increase for extension courses pursued	20
Bonus for extension courses pursued	12
Salary increase for summer school courses	24
Bonus for summer school courses	14
Partial compensation for travel	6
Merit system in effect	12
Salary increase for contributions to educational literature	.....
Apprentice system for new teachers	7

single salary schedule in force. Approximately one-third of the systems provide either a bonus or salary increase for extension courses or summer school courses. In all, approximately half of the systems recognize efforts at further training with some form of financial compensation. It is evident that the so-called merit systems are only slightly used. It has been urged by some that the smaller the school system the more difficult becomes the procedure of basing salary upon merit. In any case these systems do not follow the practice to any considerable extent.

PROFESSIONAL REQUIREMENTS

Commonly these systems urge, but do not require, periodical summer school attendance and membership in professional organizations (Table XXIV). Only 18 percent require such attendance or membership. Exactly half of the systems grant leaves of absence, in all but three cases, without pay. Only ten state that they do not grant leaves of absence. It seems reasonable to suppose, however, that failure to check items to the effect that such leaves are granted indicates that the practice is not followed. One system has adopted a plan of exchange of teachers.

TABLE XXIV

PRACTICES DESIGNED TO STIMULATE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH ON THE PART OF TEACHERS

Practice	Percent
Membership in professional organizations required	18
Membership in professional organizations urged	70
Periodical summer school attendance required	18
Periodical summer school attendance urged	53
Leaves of absence granted without pay	47
Leaves of absence granted with part pay	3
Leaves of absence not granted	10
Exchange of teachers between school systems	1

THE TYPICAL SUPERVISORY STAFF AND ITS QUALIFICATIONS

The typical superintendent has five years of training beyond high school, has a Master's degree, and a total of nearly twenty-three years of experience in educational work, thirteen of which he spent in his present or in other similar positions (Table XXV). Before he became superintendent, he was a high-school principal. This superintendent directs the efforts of six principals of elementary schools, most of whom are women. These principals may have two or four years of initial training. They have taught for seven years in the elementary

schools and were promoted to their present positions from the ranks of teachers in their present school system. This is not true of those principals who are men. They were selected from other school systems where they already were principals, having reached such principalships from a great variety of educational fields. In the typical school system, the principals of elementary schools share supervisory duties with special supervisors of art, music, and physical education. These special supervisors have better than four years of training beyond high school and have been in supervisory work for a period of eight years, a period, which in the typical case, represents their total educational experience. Like the principals they do not have academic degrees. In the main, they have received their training in private special schools, small colleges, and normal schools. High-school organization plans vary, but the typical system has one secondary school principal who has a four-year high school. This principal has nearly five years of training beyond high school with a Bachelor's degree. He has taught five years, has been a principal for nearly ten years,

TABLE XXV

SUMMARY OF DATA ON TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS, EXPRESSED IN MEDIANS UNLESS OTHERWISE INDICATED

Item	Superintendents	Supervisory Group and Medians								
		Principals				Supervisors				
		Part-time Elementary	Full-time Elementary	Junior High	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education	Handwriting
Years of training beyond high school	7.8	3.3	3.3	4.7	4.8	3.2	4.1	4.3	4	2.9
Degrees earned	M.A.	.....	.....	B.A.	B.A.	B.A.	.....	.....	.....	.....
Years of experience previous to present type of position	10	9.2	7.2	6.2	4	11	.....	.....	.....	4
Experience in present type of position	13	11.5	12.2	11.2	8.5	5	9.3	7.5	6	7.9
Years of experience (total)	23	21.6	20	17.5	13	15.5	9.3	8.3	6.2	12
Number of summer sessions attended	.....	.....	2.1	2.6	1.4	3	2	2.2	1.6	2.8
Percent who plan to remain in present field	55	16	24	35	59	55	42	40	24	25
Percent promoted from within system	39	80	67	53	38	65	15	10	8	50

thus having in all fifteen years of educational experience. He secured his first high-school principalship by moving to another city, and came to his present principalship from another system. He is the only typical principal who indicates that he intends to remain in his present field.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE DATA ON TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE

The typical superintendent has had little contact with elementary school supervision previous to his becoming superintendent. It is evident that he learns the elementary field "on the job" or in training institutions. In the elementary field he is assisted by principals whose proper qualifications must rest on experience rather than training. The typical special supervisor has had practically no teaching contact in the elementary school, having always been attached to such a school in supervisory capacity. The special supervisor's teaching, past and present, has been in the secondary school. Her training, as far as its nature can be determined, seems to have been largely content or special subject matter with little educational theory or practice.

In view of these facts it seems that the typical elementary school system is being supervised by a relatively complex organization, the members of which bring to their positions either training or experience, or both, which is often inadequate or ill-adapted to the needs of their work. Elementary school principals have training which, in the main, is only slightly better than that of the teachers whom they supervise. Special supervisors have somewhat more training in years, but the nature of the training and its adaptation to the needs of the positions are not known in any detail. At the same time such supervisors lack almost entirely the experience with elementary school teaching so commonly found among elementary school principals. It would seem that deficiencies in kinds of training and experience would seriously handicap the work of the special supervisor. In the secondary schools, principals commonly have not had elementary school experience either as teachers or as supervisors. The bearing of these facts on the problem of the articulation of elementary and secondary schools, as well as upon teaching procedures in high school, can only be conjectured.

The superintendent's lack of teaching and supervisory contact with the elementary schools, previous to his becoming a superintendent, is not reassuring. Present practice seems to operate to prevent persons with elementary school experience from becoming superintendents. Present training provided for superintendents may be better adapted to the needs of the active supervisor than to the needs of one whose

responsibility is organization and administration. In the last analysis, the training and experience desirable as preparation for any supervisor can be determined only in relationship to the functions and duties of this supervisor, and the type of leadership which is expected of such an officer.

CHAPTER V

Staff Relationships and Responsibilities

Including principals with varying degrees of supervisory responsibility, the typical city in the present investigation employs a supervisory staff of ten members exclusive of the superintendent. The mere size of this staff indicates that the problem of its organization and direction is of considerable importance. It must be remembered also that the members of the staff share supervisory responsibilities in connection with the same teachers and pupils. To organize and direct the efforts of 10 principals all supervising separate buildings and separate groups of teachers, may be a problem wholly different from directing the work of principals, general, and special supervisors who share responsibility for the supervision of the teaching group in a particular building. It is the purpose of this chapter to describe the responsibilities of the several types of supervisory officers together with the relationships existing among them.

THE DIRECTION OF STAFF MEMBERS

All supervisory officers included were asked to give the title of the official to whom they were directly responsible. In the great ma-

TABLE XXVI

Distribution of Supervisory Officers According to the Title of the Official to Whom They are Directly Responsible, 1928

Official	Number								
	Supervisors					Principals			
	Art	Music	Phys. Ed.	Penmanship	General	Part Time	Full Time	J.H.S.	H.S.
Superintendent	47	56	45	17	28	73	110	33	70
Principal	1	1	2	1	.....	1	2	.....	.....
Supervisor	3	1	.....	1	.....	4	.....	.....	.....
No data	3	12	8	3	3	16	6	12	10
Total	54	70	55	22	31	94	118	45	80

[1] Ayer, Fred C. "The Rise of Special Supervision and Departmental Organization," Studies in Administrative Research, Bulletin No. 2, Seattle Public Schools, 1925, Chapter I

jority of instances supervisory officers consider themselves responsible to the superintendent of schools (Table XXVI). That this situation is not confined alone to the cities of the size here included is shown in Ayer's study made in 1925, which included cities of 100,000 population and over.[1]

Except for the introduction of the assistant superintendent, there seem to be only slight differences between the two sets of data. In general, the special supervisor is responsible to the superintendent, and, in the cities included in the present study, this situation is well nigh universal. It is evident that in cities ranging in size from 10,000 to 20,000 the superintendent of schools is responsible for the direction of the entire supervisory staff, all the members of which feel directly responsible to him. The organization of supervision is thus peculiarly the superintendent's problem.

LATITUDE ENJOYED BY SUPERVISORY OFFICIALS

In asking supervisors to indicate the latitude accorded them by the school administration, three degrees were recognized, detailed prescription, general prescription, or complete freedom. It was realized, of course, that interpretation of such categories would be subject to some error. It was believed, however, that in view of the number of cases, the summarized replies would give a rough picture of the degree of freedom which these various groups feel. It should be remembered also that in this study it is desired to point out the relative degrees of latitude given to various kinds of supervisory officers, rather than to point out the exact amount of freedom of action enjoyed by any supervisor.

EXPRESSIONS OF SUPERINTENDENTS

Superintendents were asked to indicate the latitude which they accord to supervisors and also that which they accord to teachers. It was believed that this might vary with the several aspects of the work. For this reason a list of such items was provided. There seems to be a tendency among superintendents to allow teachers somewhat less freedom of action than they allow supervisors. Thirty-eight percent of the superintendents allow supervisors complete freedom of method, while only 17 percent give this same degree of freedom to teachers. For teachers, time allotment is prescribed in detail by 43 percent, while supervisors have detailed prescriptions as to time allotment in only 18 percent of the cases. There seems to be a general disposition on the part of superintendents to allow considerable freedom in connection with teaching activities and methods.

TABLE XXVII

COMPARING DEGREES OF LATITUDE WHICH VARIOUS TYPES OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS INDICATE IS ACCORDED TO THEM BY THE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

Item	Percent*																	
	Principals		Supervisors				Principals		Supervisors				Principals		Supervisors			
	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
	Prescribed in detail						Prescribed in general only						Complete freedom of action accorded					
Time allotment	19	5	.....	46	25	38	40	36	48	38	33	26	33	40	30	16	25	22
Course of study	46	10	6	6	10	16	43	67	63	28	22	26	3	8	9	66	56	50
Teaching methods	3	1	.....	.....	3	6	57	43	39	22	18	16	32	38	45	76	82	64
Activities used	4	.....	3	.....	3	6	42	38	33	28	29	24	42	46	45	62	62	48
Adherence to texts	22	3	15	.....	10	6	56	60	36	14	20	14	9	21	27	54	39	20
Basis for promotion	38	16	21	4	9	4	42	55	36	12	15	12	12	18	15	28	21	26
Basis of classification	25	15	15	4	10	3	49	42	36	4	19	12	17	25	21	32	20	26
Basis for marking	35	20	21	4	11	2	40	47	33	10	18	12	12	16	15	34	21	34

* Percents not checking omitted to simplify table.

RELATIONSHIPS AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN CONNECTION WITH SPECIAL SUPERVISION

While a relatively small proportion of superintendents indicate that they allow complete freedom in connection with the course of study, it will be noted that from 50 to 66 percent of the special supervisors feel that they have complete freedom of action in this regard. The proportion of high and elementary school principals acknowledging complete freedom of action corresponds very closely to the proportion of superintendents who indicate that they accord them this degree of latitude. Special supervisors on the other hand, seem to enjoy a degree of latitude greatly in excess of that indicated by their superintendents.

While, in general, special supervisors state that a greater degree of latitude is accorded to them by their superintendents than seems to be enjoyed by principals, the special supervisors give teachers under their supervision smaller freedom of action than do principals. From 22 to 35 percent of special supervisors prescribe teaching methods in detail for teachers, while only 1 to 6 percent of general supervisors prescribe methods in detail. The degree of freedom acknowledged by special supervisors seems disproportionate to that which they in turn give to their teachers as well as that which is enjoyed by general supervisors.

The situation described in the reactions of supervisors is substantiated by the replies of teachers in ten Minnesota school systems. In these cities teachers were asked to indicate whether or not they were required to follow a definite method in art and music. While a casual glance at the data might lead one to believe that music supervisors hold teachers much more rigidly to methods than do art supervisors (Table XXIX), the situation is probably not as different in art supervision as it appears. Two of the systems have no art supervisors. A third had been without an art supervisor, and, at the time the study was made, the new supervisor had just begun her work. If these three systems are disregarded the average percent of teachers who indicate that they are required to follow a definite method in art teaching is 44.1. The percentage for music is 62.5, considerably larger than even the corrected percentage for art. Nevertheless, in the large, the reactions of teachers indicate that they are required to conform more rigidly to certain methods in the special subjects than in the so-called regular subjects. The degree of conformity varies somewhat with the local situation, but, in general, it is a characteristic of special supervision.

TABLE XXVIII

COMPARING THE DEGREES OF LATITUDE WHICH VARIOUS TYPES OF SUPERVISORS INDICATE THAT THEY ACCORD TO TEACHERS UNDER THEIR SUPERVISION

Item	Percent*																	
	Principals		Supervisors				Principals		Supervisors				Principals		Supervisors			
	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education	Elementary School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
	Prescribed in detail						Prescribed in general only						Complete freedom of action accorded					
Time allotment	26	27	21	58	60	64	61	53	48	34	24	16	6	6	3	4	3	2
Course of study	22	27	24	42	70	42	68	59	45	58	18	20	1	1	6	.....	2	.....
Teaching methods	4	1	6	22	35	30	62	54	54	66	42	50	25	34	15	10	7	4
Activities used	1	3	.....	12	25	42	56	57	51	66	43	32	29	22	21	16	9	6
Adherence to texts	22	8	12	8	48	28	59	69	48	34	21	18	7	9	15	22	3	.....
Basis for promotion	44	39	18	6	10	2	41	42	54	18	22	10	6	6	3	24	20	16
Basis of classification	40	35	21	4	12	4	44	37	48	14	21	12	6	6	6	26	19	16
Basis for marking	40	42	24	4	10	10	43	38	28	26	21	10	12	2	9	28	21	20

* Percents not checking omitted to simplify table.

TABLE XXIX

DISTRIBUTION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 10 MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS ACCORDING TO THE EXTENT TO WHICH THEY ARE REQUIRED TO FOLLOW DEFINITE METHOD IN ART AND MUSIC

School	Percent*			
	Art		Music	
	Required to follow definite method	Not required to follow definite method	Required to follow definite method	Not required to follow definite method
1	27	42	54	27
2	56	14	70	10
3[a]	8	56	.....	.....
4	26	20	76	.....
5	21	36	75	.....
6	36	12	62	4
7	[b]	48	42	12
8	63	18	96	.....
9	72	21	72	15
10	22[c]	42	78	6
Averages	33.1	30.9	62.5	15

[a]No special supervisors in this system.
[b]No art supervisors in this system.
[c]No art supervisor was employed in this system during the previous year. Present supervisor had not yet outlined her policy clearly.
NOTE: Omitting the three systems which are not typical the average percent of teachers required to follow definite method in art is 44.1.
*Percents not checking omitted to simplify table.

RELATIONSHIPS AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN CONNECTION WITH GENERAL SUPERVISION

Principals of all levels of schools have enjoyed such varying degrees of responsibility for administrative and supervisory functions that the word principal has come to have a variable meaning. One "high-school principal" keeps attendance records, handles disciplinary cases of minor character, and supervises the study hall. The course of study, the textbooks, and the teachers are selected by the superintendent. Another "principal" assumes more or less complete administrative and supervisory responsibility for the high school. Both are called principals. In this study all principals were asked to check opposite a list of responsibilities, as to whether these are discharged chiefly by the superintendent, jointly by the superintendent and principal, or exclusively by the principal (Table XXX).

TABLE XXX

COMPARING THE EXTENT TO WHICH VARIOUS PRINCIPALS AND SUPERVISORS PARTICIPATE IN CERTAIN ACTIVITIES

Supervisory Activity or Responsibility	Percent*														
	Carried on Chiefly by Superintendent					Carried on Jointly by Supt. and Prin.					Exclusively Delegated to Principal				
	High School	Junior High School	General Supervisors	Full time Elementary	Part time Elementary	High School	Junior High School	General Supervisors	Full time Elementary	Part time Elementary	High School	Junior High School	General Supervisors	Full time Elementary	Part time Elementary
Classroom visitation	.....	.....	3	1	3	75	56	51	78	83	18	14	3	16	3
Giving suggestions regarding teaching methods	.....	.....	3	2	4	75	58	45	76	66	18	10	6	17	12
Calling meetings of high-school teachers	.....	4	3	10	13	26	22	37	20	36	63	34	29	30	15
Leadership in curriculum construction	9	10	12	36	30	59	59	27	49	37	25	4	9	2	2
Selection of texts, materials of instruction	6	15	9	28	26	67	56	42	58	46	18	6	3	2	1
Rating teachers for reëmployment	19	8	15	26	17	68	56	45	64	70	6	4	.....	4	.....
Selection of new teachers	37	26	48	83	72	50	42	15	12	10	2	.....	.....	.....	.....

* Percents not checking omitted to simplify table.

It can be seen that the general tendency among these school systems is toward joint administration of the various supervisory duties. The superintendents participate in classroom visitation in from 50 to 83 percent of the systems. Even in the case of high-school principals only 18 percent have been able to secure the exclusive delegation of this function. Suggestions following visits are given by both the superintendent and the principals. When it comes to curriculum construction, the superintendent plays an even larger part, particularly in the elementary school, where from 30 to 35 percent of the principals indicate that the superintendent is chiefly responsible. In the selection of texts and other materials of instruction the superintendent likewise plays a definite role, only 18 percent of high-school principals and a negligible percentage of elementary school principals having received the exclusive delegation of this responsibility. Selection of new teachers seems to be the superintendent's exclusive responsibility in the elementary schools. In high schools it is carried on jointly by superintendent and principal, while in the elementary schools only 10 percent of the principals indicate that they participate in teacher selection. Even among general elementary grade supervisors the percentage is only 15.

A review of Table XXX indicates that, in general, elementary school principals are accorded less latitude and enjoy fewer unshared responsibilities than do high-school principals. The data for men and women elementary school principals were tabulated separately to determine whether or not there was any tendency to accord men principals more responsibility than women. Absolutely no such differences could be discerned. More than 80 percent of the men principals indicated that the selection of teachers was solely the superintendent's responsibility. No great differences are found between the responsibility acknowledged by principals who do no teaching and those who give part time to teaching (Table XXX).

THE SUPERINTENDENT'S PARTICIPATION IN SUPERVISION

Seemingly superintendents in these cities play an active part in classroom supervision. Nearly three-fourths of them visit classrooms to help teachers. Nearly the same number hold conferences with teachers concerning their visits and call teachers' meetings to discuss methods of teaching. They make suggestions directly and through supervisors and principals. Less than 20 percent make suggestions only through principals and supervisors. Only about 10 percent delegate all supervision to supervisors. It is evident that superintendents

tend to play a smaller part in high-school than in elementary school supervision, although the situation is probably different in degree rather than in kind. It can be seen from the tables that principals both in high schools and in elementary schools are definitely conscious of the presence of the superintendent as an active classroom supervisor. In relatively small numbers only do these principals feel that to them has been delegated in its entirety the function of instructional improvement.

RELATIONSHIPS WITH GENERAL SUPERVISORS

Only one-third of the systems here studied have such general supervisors, hence Table XXXI summarizes the replies of 33 supervisors and the same number of superintendents. In about one-half of the cases, according to the statements of superintendents, the general supervisor is responsible for all supervision in the system. It is evident, however, that this responsibility does not extend to the special supervisors, as only 6 percent of them state that the general supervisors direct the work of the specialists. Neither is it common for general supervisors to direct the work of principals.

TABLE XXXI

COMPARING THE PERCENTAGES OF GENERAL SUPERVISORS WHO STATE THAT THEY FOLLOW CERTAIN PRACTICES WITH THE STATEMENTS OF THEIR SUPERINTENDENTS AND EDUCATIONAL SPECIALISTS REGARDING SAME ITEMS

Practice	Percent		
	Supervisors	Superintendent	Experts
Direct all supervisory work in elementary schools	39	51	30
Direct the supervisory work of principals	18	9	20
Direct the work of special supervisors	6	6	20
Do not direct the work of any other supervisors	45	48	14
Personally visit classrooms to help teachers	87	87	76
Personally visit only to rate teachers	12	9	6
Personally visit to inspect only	.....	.....	8
Make suggestions directly to teachers	78	75	44
Make suggestions only through principals	.....	.....	16
Make suggestions both through principal and directly	69	54	78
Work under principal's direction while in building	18	15	50
Work under superintendent, without being responsible to principal while in building	54	51	12
Call meetings of teachers in various buildings	57	66	14
Ask principal to call meetings	21	30	70
Number of replies included	33	33	56

These general supervisors make suggestions directly to teachers. No such supervisor makes suggestions through the principal only. A large majority of them follow both practices. Likewise, a majority of them work under the direction of the superintendent without being responsible to the principal while in his building. They even call meetings of teachers themselves rather than ask the principal to call such meetings.

It seems evident that in the same system general supervisors are persons of considerably more authority than the principals. While they do not direct the work of principals in any definite way, probably it is likely that the supervisory work which they do as supervisors is the great part of the supervisory work done in the system. Probably where such supervisors are employed, the principal is, in most cases merely an assistant principal. The general supervisor is a representative of the superintendent, and her part in supervision is probably similar to that played by the superintendents who have no such supervisors.

TABLE XXXII

COMPARING REPORTS BY VARIOUS GROUPS CONCERNING THE PART PLAYED BY PRINCIPALS IN SUPERVISION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

Practice	Percent		
	Supt.	Majority	Experts
Responsible personally for all supervision in building	25	26	38
Responsible for supervision in regular subjects only	28	41	32
Principals plan work of special supervisors for building	5	5	34
Convey suggestions of special supervisors to teachers	14	23	20
Direct the work of special supervisors in building	17	15	34
Work under the direction of general supervisors	9	16	16
Participate with superintendent in planning supervisory program for whole school system	51	47	84

PRACTICES OF SUPERINTENDENTS IN THE DIRECTION OF SUPERVISORY WORK

Superintendents were asked also to check statements descriptive of various parts which a superintendent might play in organizing and administering the work of his supervisory staff. They were asked to check separately the items which best describe their practice in high

school and in elementary schools. Other supervisory staff members were asked to check the same items. It was planned to compare with the statements made by the members of the supervisory staff, the statements of superintendents with regard to their own practices. When the materials were received they were summarized for each school system. The majority opinion in regard to a certain practice was determined. If the superintendent stated that he planned the work of supervisors in detail, while 5 out of 7 of his principals stated that he planned their work in general, the judgment of principals was taken as indicative of the actual practice. In Table XXXIII the percentages of those various groups who checked the several items are shown. This table becomes, therefore, a picture of the practices of superintendents as they appear to, and are represented by various

TABLE XXXIII

COMPARING REPORTS OF VARIOUS GROUPS REGARDING THE PART PLAYED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERVISION

Practice	Percent		
	Supts.	Majority[a]	Experts
Approves the supervisory program in general	76	81	84
Plans the work of principals and supervisors in detail	9	1	.....
Plans their supervisory work in general	50	51	46
Permits supervisors and principals to plan own work	59	71	62
Personally visits classrooms to improve instruction	69	74	32
Personally visits to rate teachers for re-employment	63	74	46
Personally visits to inspect only	36	46	34
Calls meetings of teachers to discuss methods	68	73	50
Calls meetings for routine and announcements	42	49	24
Personally holds conferences with teachers following visitation	58	62	34
Makes suggestions only through principal or supervisor	19	18	36
Makes suggestions both directly and through supervisors	75	78	66
All suggestions on teaching method made by superintendent	1	1	.....
All supervision for improvement of instruction delegated to principals and supervisors	9	11	34
Meets with supervisors as a group to outline policy	59	59	90
Requires reports of all persons who do supervisory work	54	59	72

[a]For this column the practice in each system is that reported by the majority of supervisory officers in the system.

elementary school supervisory groups, including the superintendents themselves. The data growing out of this part of the study substantiates the reactions of various types of principals mentioned above as to the extent of their participation in administration and supervision.

There is virtually no detailed planning of the supervisor's work (Table XXXIII). General planning ranks lower than general approval. The number of supervisory officers who check the item on general approval is larger than the corresponding percentage of superintendents. The percentage of supervisors who indicate that the supervisor is permitted to plan her own work, is larger than the percentage of superintendents who check the same statement. The exact interpretation of "general planning" may, of course, vary somewhat. However, the fact that in nearly three-fourths of these systems statements are to the effect that the supervisor is permitted to plan her own work, indicates that a considerable degree of freedom is allowed. Whatever direction there is on the part of the superintendent, it seems to take the form of general approval of plans. This was the procedure in most of the school systems that were visited. One superintendent required that all supervisory plans be sent to him for approval before they were carried out. Another asked supervisors to discuss with him their programs for the year. In no case in the systems visited was there detailed planning of the supervisor's work. Interviews with supervisors showed that in practically every case they felt free to do very much as they pleased, providing time allotments and general routine were complied with.

Possible differences in attitude toward the problem were expressed by the superintendents in systems visited. One superintendent holds teachers to a fairly rigid conformity in matters of routine, such as time of arrival, promptness in reports and adherence to time allotments. Once the teacher has complied in these matters, however, she is free to do as she thinks best in method, use of materials, or anything else, the only requirement being that she will secure results. Another superintendent cares little concerning such conformity in matters of routine but wants certain subjects taught according to what seems to be the most effective method. Another gives teachers to understand that results must be secured. If they are not secured the teacher is given to understand that some other teacher will be employed who can attain the desired results. In all of these systems, however, interviews with supervisors disclose only very slight, if any, differences in attitude. This leads one to feel that these statements by superintendents are often more or less theoretical. Often in practice the

situation is perhaps little affected by such theory. No one can say what the superintendent's policy should be. What is even more difficult is the administration of any selected policy. The majority (59 percent) of the superintendents meet with supervisors as a group to outline policies. The frequency of such meetings and their nature is another problem. The majority of superintendents also require reports of supervisors.

TABLE XXXIV

COMPARING THE STATEMENTS OF VARIOUS GROUPS REGARDING THE PART PLAYED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT IN SUPERVISION IN HIGH SCHOOL EXPRESSED IN PERCENTS WHO FOLLOW EACH PRACTICE

Practice	Percent			
	Majority[a]	H. S. Prin.	Supt.	Experts
Approves supervisory program in general	81	59	65	84
Plans supervisory work of principals and supervisors in detail	1	1	5	.....
Plans supervisory work of principals and supervisors in general	52	22	44	42
Permits principals and supervisors to plan their own supervisory work	71	70	50	62
Personally visits classrooms to improve instruction	73	50	56	26
Personally visits to inspect only	45	30	34	40
Personally visits to rate teachers for reëmployment	71	39	55	46
Calls meetings of teachers to discuss methods	68	41	51	46
Calls meetings for announcements and routine	45	31	30	24
Personally holds conferences with teachers following visitation	62	44	50	30
Makes suggestions only through principal	14	27	19	34
Makes suggestions both directly and through supervisors	78	51	67	64
All suggestions on method made by superintendent	1	1	1	.....
All supervision for improvement of instruction delegated to principals	10	20	5	34
Meets with supervisors as a group to outline policy	56	50	44	88
Requires reports of all persons who do supervisory work	58	34	47	72

[a]In this column the practice in each system is that reported by a majority of the supervisory officers in the system.

ORGANIZATION AS VIEWED BY TEACHERS

In the ten Minnesota school systems visited an effort was made to get teachers to describe the functioning of the school and supervisory organization of which they are a part. It seemed plausible that the operation of the organization might appear different to teachers than to supervisory or administrative officers. The canvas of teachers was part of the general plan of securing as careful a picture as possible of practices followed.

The delegation of duties and responsibilities implies the definition of the limits within which staff members shall be allowed to act. If the school system is to have certain larger objectives it seems reasonable to demand that responsibilities delegated shall be carried out in such a manner as to contribute to the attainment of these objectives.

If delegated duties are actually to be successfully performed, it seems reasonable to insist that staff members shall know what responsibilities they have. If policies within the school system are clearly defined, if duties are specifically delegated, and if clear relationships are established, it would seem possible to secure from members of the organization a fairly unanimous report of the actual situation.

THE RESPONSIBILITIES OF TEACHERS

Teachers were asked to indicate the degree of responsibility which they were expected to assume in relation to various aspects of the school enterprise: such as the curriculum, teaching methods, materials, school plant, and school organization. Four degrees of responsibility were recognized: complete, partial, suggestion, and no responsibility whatever. Thus the teacher might actually prepare her own course

TABLE XXXV

DISTRIBUTION OF 377 ELEMENTARY AND 334 HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 10 MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS ACCORDING TO DEGREE OF RESPONSIBILITY WHICH THEY FEEL FOR THE CURRICULUM

School	Percent Acknowledging Various Degrees of Responsibility									
	No data		Complete Construct the Curriculum		Partial Assist in Construction		May Make Suggestions Only		No relationship or Responsibility	
	E.S.[a]	H.S.	E.S.	H.S.	E.S.	H.S.	E.S.	H.S.	E.S.	H.S.
1	19	55	12	.....	42	15	21	18	6	12
2	.....	14	4	18	64	36	24	20	8	12
3	10	9	8	30	28	13	12	24	42	24
4	30	10	12	15	10	15	38	24	10	36
5	16	28	9	3	6	18	45	30	24	21
6	42	32	2	8	24	12	18	20	14	28
7	46	10	.....	12	12	24	18	36	24	18
8	16	28	3	4	51	8	12	32	.....	28
9	16	23	3	10	24	15	6	17	51	35
10	1	16	.....	.....	17	6	36	18	46	60
Averages	19.5	22.5	5.3	10	27.8	16.2	24.8	23.9	22.5	27.4

[a] E.S.—Elementary school teachers.
H.S.—High-school teachers.

of study, she might participate in its preparation, she might have merely the right to make suggestions, or she might have no part whatever in its preparation. It is noteworthy, that while there are some differences between systems, there are in every school system, teachers who express all of the four degrees of responsibility for the curriculum (Table XXXV). There seems to be no agreement among the members of a particular teaching staff what their exact responsibilities are. Some feel no responsibility whatever for the course of study, others feel that they have complete responsibility for it. Some indicate that they assist in its preparation, others state that they merely have the right to make suggestions.

The situation just described is not confined to the course of study. Similar situations are found for teaching methods, selection of materials for instruction, and the school organization. The amount of disagreement found varies somewhat with the school system, but a high degree of disagreement is a characteristic of the data. Likewise, there seems to be disagreement concerning all items. If teachers differ in describing the degree of responsibility which they feel for the selection of teaching methods, they differ, practically as much, regarding their responsibility for the school organization in such matters as promotion and classification. Again the disagreement seems as great among high-school teachers as among elementary school teachers.

Differences between elementary and high schools

While both high-school and elementary school teachers are in disagreement among themselves as to the nature of their responsibilities, there are differences in the general attitudes of the two groups of teachers. On an average of 53.7 percent of elementary teachers feel either complete or partial responsibility for the school organization, while only 30.2 percent of high-school teachers acknowledge this same degree of responsibility. Of high-school teachers 44.3 percent either feel that they have only the responsibility for making suggestions, or that they have no responsibility for the school organization whatever. In fact, the percentages of high-school teachers feeling no responsibility are more than twice as large as for elementary teachers.

Teachers were asked also to indicate whether they were held to absolute conformity in method, were expected to conform to methods in general, or were allowed complete freedom. The number of teachers indicating that they were held to absolute conformity in method was negligible. For this reason Table XXXVI considers only a comparison between those teachers who indicate that general uniformity

is expected, and those who state that they have complete freedom in method. With the exception of two school systems where the superintendent plays a large part in the supervisory procedure, the general tendency is for high-school teachers to feel that they have a much greater freedom of method than elementary school teachers. An average of almost three times as many elementary school as high-school teachers state that general uniformity of method is expected. Almost twice as many high-school as elementary school teachers indicate that they are permitted a complete freedom of method.

TABLE XXXVI

COMPARING THE EXTENT TO WHICH ELEMENTARY AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 10 MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS FEEL THAT THEY ARE REQUIRED TO CONFORM IN METHODS OF TEACHING

School	General Uniformity Expected		Complete Freedom Permitted	
	El. School	High School	El. School	High School
1	75	33	14	45
2	64	12	30	66
3*	25	28	55	60
4	46	18	18	36
5	54	18	15	33
6	80	18	2	38
7[a]	30	6	48	48
8	78	36	39	60
9	72	30	15	44
10	76	24	18	45
Averages	60	22.3	25.4	47.5

*No special supervisors in this system. Superintendent and high-school principal supervise coöperatively following similar procedures.

[a]Superintendent is active supervisor in both elementary school and high school in this system.

TABLE XXXVII

COMPARING PRACTICES OF ELEMENTARY AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 10 MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE COURSE OF STUDY

Practice	Average Percent	
	El. School	High School
Follow course of study closely	33.2	15.5
Follow course of study only in general	55.2	55.9
Follow no course of study	3.2	4.5
Teachers' judgment determines what is taught	8	19
Supervisor or principal's judgment determines what is taught	49.6	9.3

The situation just described in relationship to method seems to be equally true of the course of study. The percentage of elementary school teachers who state that they follow the course of study closely is more than twice as large as the percentage of high-school teachers who make the same statement (Table XXXVII). It seems that the supervisory officer plays a much larger part in the direction of elementary school instruction than he does in high-school instruction in these school systems. More than twice as large a percentage of high-school as elementary school teachers indicate that the teacher's judgment determines what is taught. More than five times as many elementary school as high-school teachers state that the supervisory officer's judgment determines what is taught. In Table XXXVIII it is shown that the influence of the supervisor in the two levels of schools is no different in regard to method. Almost five times more elementary teachers than high-school teachers state that they use, largely, methods presented by the supervisor.

TABLE XXXVIII

COMPARING THE EXTENT TO WHICH ELEMENTARY AND HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS IN 10 MINNESOTA SCHOOL SYSTEMS INDICATE THAT THEY USE METHODS PRESENTED BY SUPERVISORS

School	Percent	
	Elementary School	High School
1	48	72
2	40	58
3*	48	45
4	74	40
5	39	45
6	66	56
7[a]	36	54
8	54	56
9	60	50
10	44	60
Averages	50.9	53.6

*There are no special supervisors in this school system. Same type of supervision exists in high school as in elementary school.

[a]Superintendent is active supervisor in both elementary and high schools.

THE COÖRDINATION OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITY

From 60 to 86 percent of special supervisors state that they work independently, planning their own work. This corresponds to the percentages of such special supervisors who feel that they have complete freedom of action in respect to important responsibilities. In

fact one may say that the only respect in which the special supervisor feels she is limited in any detail is in connection with time allotment. This commonly seems to be fixed by the superintendent. The problem of coördination, resulting from the great variety of special supervisors, is not difficult to visualize. In one school system visited, teachers felt unable to undertake the remedial work in arithmetic because of the heavy duties imposed upon them by the supervisors of special subjects. This was in every way a typical situation in cities of this size. The possibilities for overlapping of effort, for omission of important activities, or for overemphasis on others seem very great. In the ten school systems visited all superintendents seemed conscious of this problem and were struggling with it in one way or another, but no solution seemed to be at hand.

In health and physical education, for example, there are employed in the same school system, physical education teachers, physical education supervisors, school nurses, and, perhaps physicians. All of these staff members carry on activities in the same or at least closely related fields. The superintendents included in this study were asked to check in the list given in Table XXXIX, the statements which best described their procedure for coördinating the activities of the various staff members in health and physical education. The striking thing about the replies is their great variety. To what extent the attempted coördination under the several plans used really "coördinates" is

TABLE XXXIX

DISTRIBUTION OF 100 SCHOOL SYSTEMS ACCORDING TO PLAN PROVIDED FOR COÖRDINATION OF STAFF ACTIVITIES IN HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

Plan	Percent
Employ a director whose function it is to coördinate	24
Staff members meet and attempt coördination through group planning of activities	16
Health work coördinated by	
Superintendent	12
Nurse	11
All staff members in coöperation	12
Physical education teacher or supervisor	2
Physician	3
Superintendent and physical education supervisor	4
Superintendent and nurse	5
Superintendent and physician	1
No plan, each staff member planning his own activities	10
Health work in individual schools coördinated by principals	19[a]
Total	100

[a]Overlaps all plans and not included in total.

another matter. The number of different plans indicates the confusion in the field. There are no tried and accepted procedures. No one knows the relative merits of the plans followed. The ability (in terms of training and experience) of nurses, physicians, and physical education supervisors to assume the role of coördinator may be questioned. No doubt many of the specialists would question the ability of the superintendent in this connection.

The Judgments of Specialists in Administration and Supervision

In Tables XXXI, XXXII, XXXIII, and XXXIV, the percentages of specialists who favor the various practices are given with the statements of practice. While specialists are by no means agreed, they seem in general to favor a smaller participation in the detail of supervision by the superintendent. Of superintendents 69 percent state that they visit classrooms to help teachers, while only 32 percent of the specialists call this the best practice. Of the specialists only 34 percent believe the superintendent should hold conferences with teachers about methods, while nearly twice this percentage of superintendents (58 percent) indicate this to be their practice. More than one-third of the specialists favor delegation of all supervision to the principals and supervisors. In practice only 9 percent of the superintendents follow this policy. The specialists also show more approval for group meetings and for reports from supervisors.

Specialists do not differentiate between practice for high-school supervision and for elementary school supervision, the percentages for the two levels of schools being almost identical. In the case of general supervisors, educational experts believe such officers should work under the principal while in a particular building. In practice 54 percent of general supervisors work under the superintendent without being responsible to the principal while in a particular building. Only 12 percent of the specialists favor this latter practice. The experts also believe the principal should be asked to call teachers' meetings rather than have such meetings called by the general supervisor. In general, the specialists would seem to give the general supervisor less authority and the principals more authority. This tendency is also shown in Table XXXII where 34 percent of the specialists are shown to favor of placing the principal above the supervisor in line of authority. While in practice only about one-half of the superintendents indicate that principals participate with them in planning the supervisory program for the whole system, 87 percent of the specialists favor such participation.

Still greater differences are shown in Table XL. Only 2 percent of the experts believe the special supervisor should work independently in planning her own work, while in practice this is what is done in 62 percent of the systems. There are great differences in all of the figures. Specialists differ with the practice reported in every case. According to 42 percent of the specialists the special supervisor should be under the principal's direction. In practice, however, this is true in only 14 percent of the systems. Special supervisors should work under the direction of the general supervisor according to 30 percent of the specialists, although in practice only 5 percent actually do. In practice special supervisors are under the superintendent's direction in 80 percent of the school systems, while experts disagree widely on this point. In practice the supervisor spends most of her visitation time in demonstration teaching rather than in observation. While, in general, specialists as far as they have expressed themselves, would favor this procedure, their judgments are neither unanimous nor generally expressed.

TABLE XL

COMPARING THE JUDGMENTS OF SPECIALISTS IN ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION WITH THE PRACTICES FOLLOWED IN 100 CITIES

Practice	Percent	
	Practice	Experts favoring
Employ no special supervisors	10	3
Special supervisors work independently planning their own work	62	2
Work under the direction of principals	14	42
Work under direction of general supervisor	5	30
Work under direction of superintendent	80	54
Spend most of visitation time in observation	6	28
Spend most of visitation time in demonstration teaching	87	42

In so far as expert judgments are available they differ radically on some points with practices reported and are in great disagreement over others. There is no thought here of setting up expert opinion as a guide to follow. The opinions are presented rather to show the unsettled status of the whole problem. It is clearly evident that certain widely followed practices are not generally approved by specialists in the field.

THE TYPICAL SITUATION IN CONNECTION WITH RELATIONSHIPS AND RESPONSIBILITIES

Since practically all supervisory officers in these school systems feel responsible directly to the superintendent of schools, it becomes

the superintendent's responsibility to take the initiative in the development of the supervisory organization. To the superintendent under existing conditions all supervisory officers must look for assignment of duty and for direction and guidance. The data in this section of the study may therefore be summarized by describing the typical superintendent's practice and its apparent results. Present practice of superintendents shows two definite tendencies. On the one hand, the superintendent delegates to principals the responsibility for classroom supervision and continues himself to play a part in the details of this responsibility. This situation makes supervision a joint rather than a definitely delegated responsibility, as far as general subjects are concerned. On the other hand, the superintendent delegates to specialists the supervision of special subjects and leaves them so unguided in their work that frequently their very freedom may result in lack of coördinated effort on the part of the whole staff. It is a curious fact that two such opposite tendencies should be found in the practice of the same superintendents.

GENERAL SUPERVISION

The superintendent's active participation in the detail of supervision is probably due to several factors. It may be that superintendents consider their principals ill adapted by training and experience for effective work in supervision. This may account for a failure to delegate the responsibility for supervision in its entirety to principals. It is not only a matter of years of training and years of experience but of the nature of such training and experience. The principal, for instance, who has devoted years to the administrative details of her office with practically no attention to supervision may find it difficult to assume its responsibilities even though she is relieved of teaching duties.

In situations where principals do have acceptable training, experience, and capacity, traditional practice on the part of the superintendent may perpetuate certain policies which prevent the principal from assuming complete responsibility for supervision.

Again there may be the feeling on the part of the superintendent that active classroom supervision is one of his important functions. He may consider that such supervision as is furnished by the principal is to supplement rather than to supplant his own. The superintendent's feeling of familiarity with content and method in the general school subjects like arithmetic and reading is in considerable contrast to his lack of familiarity in special subjects such as music and art.

In any case, it is difficult to see how the superintendent's concern with the detail of supervisory responsibility (supposedly delegated to the principal) can make for efficiency either on the part of the superintendent or the principal. For the superintendent it must mean time spent on details, time which may be needed for larger matters. For the principal there would seem to be always the consciousness of the superintendent's failure to entrust the responsibility in its entirety. Since the principal does not have full responsibility he cannot, in the nature of things, be held entirely responsible for results. Nor can it be expected that the superintendent's part will be anything but a desultory and varying one. With the numerous other administrative duties which demand his attention, the average superintendent in cities of this size probably can give only secondary attention to supervision. The result of the total situation may be that supervisory work receives neither the best which the superintendent or the principal has to offer.

It may also be questioned, whether the employment of principals with no teaching duties can be justified if they are incapable of supervisory work. The fact, too, that no significant differences are found between the superintendent's practice in relationship to principals who have full time for supervision and those who have only part time indicates that practices have little relationship to the principal's training or time for supervision. Practices are the same for men principals as for women principals, even though, in the main, the former have better training as represented by years of school education and by degrees named.

Reactions of teachers show great differences in the extent of responsibility acknowledged by individual teachers in each organization. This is perhaps not surprising in view of the divided responsibility for supervision. Differences are likewise found between the reactions of elementary and high-school teachers. It would seem that high-school teachers are much less influenced by supervision than elementary school teachers. Time now being given by superintendents to supervision is probably going largely into routine matters such as classroom visitation, rather than into the organization, direction, and guidance of the work of other supervisory staff members. It is hardly to be expected that the function of organization and guidance can be properly discharged unless the superintendent is sufficiently freed from the details of supervisory routine and other time-consuming detail to give this function and other important phases of his work undivided attention.

SPECIAL SUPERVISION

The second tendency in the practice of superintendents in the organization of supervision is to give special supervisors almost complete freedom of action. The great degree of latitude enjoyed by special supervisors may be due to the specialized nature of their subjects. Superintendents may consider themselves incompetent to outline the work of special supervisors in any detail. The typical special supervisor not only is free to do much as she pleases in selection of content, methods, and materials, but she acknowledges, at least in terms of the expressions in this study, even greater freedom than perhaps her superintendent would like to have her feel. It seems probable that in these school systems a change of supervisor may mean a complete change of method and procedure in the subject. In Chapter VI it is shown that, in general, special supervisors attach more importance to conformity to method than do general supervisors. If these supervisors are right in their greater insistence upon the importance of conformity to method, certainly lack of continuity becomes all the more serious. Yet, the problem of securing continuity becomes greater if each successive supervisor is free to select any method or procedure she chooses.

In those school systems included in Table XXIX which have no special supervisors, teachers indicate that in regard to method much greater freedom obtains. The suggestion is that a more or less specific adherence to method is a peculiar characteristic of the special supervisors work. Were general supervisors to be charged with the work of supervising art, music, and physical education, it is possible that they would accord more latitude to teachers in choice of teaching procedures. Whether the work in special subjects would suffer from this freedom is another question.

Probably, too, there is a relationship between the special supervisor's insistence upon the importance of conformity to method and her tendency to accord only slight freedom of action. Her method is right, it is the most effective, and, therefore, must be used. Bobbitt describes the situation when he says:

"It is the supervisor of some special subject or department who tends so often to be arbitrarily dictatorial. He is a trained specialist and knows that he is employed for the work because his understanding of it is so much greater than that of the persons he is supervising. The easy way is simply to tell teachers what to do and bring pressure to bear in making them do it. This is the method that is normal to the older type of personnel management, and they have inherited the tradition. And further, it is human nature to look to the immediate rather than to the remote. Thus the special supervisor wants the teachers immediately

to do the right things in the most perfect possible way. They are unqualified for immediate self-direction; so the special supervisor tells them exactly what to do and how to do it. He often lacks the patience and long foresight necessary for the slower process of creating a teacher understanding which of itself without orders strives for the same results."[2]

Probably the average special supervisor has slight confidence in the competence of the classroom teacher in the teaching of a special subject. In this study supervisors were asked to indicate their judgment of various plans for the teaching of special subjects. One of these statements was "Train classroom teachers so well in special subjects that the supervisor need act only in advisory capacity." A number of supervisors commented on this statement as follows: "Ideal but impossible," "An impractical procedure." Here, of course, the training offered classroom teachers in the special subjects may be at fault. No doubt, however, the feeling that such subjects as music and art are "fine arts" in which relatively few persons have capacity is a factor in the situation. If, however, these subjects require such highly specialized capacities that the ordinary classroom teacher cannot be trained to teach them, one is led to question whether or not they can be taught successfully to the rank and file of the children. In any case the attitude of the supervisor probably grows out of the concept that the elementary school teacher is not only untrained in the special subjects but is incapable of being trained in them.

Thus the superintendent's part in relationship to both general and special supervision seems to be a product of a certain concept of the training of the teaching and supervisory staff members. Untrained or incapable principals may cause the superintendent to assume active responsibility for supervision in the general fields, while untrained teachers (in special subjects) may be responsible for the didactic procedure followed by special supervisors. Modification of practice in either field would seem to become possible as a result of improved or at least modified training of both supervisors and teachers. To what extent can principals be trained to assume and effectively discharge responsibilities for supervision? To what extent can classroom teachers be trained to make possible a less didactic supervisory procedure?

If recent emphasis in educational literature on definite objectives, correlation of subject matter, and unification of school experiences represents a desirable trend, the lack of coördination in existing

[2] Bobbitt, Franklin. *Educational Supervision*, The First Yearbook of the Conference in Educational Method, pp. 247-48.

supervisory organization is somewhat disturbing. Certainly it is likely that some subjects will be emphasized at the expense of others. Arithmetic may suffer from overemphasis on art. The apparent lack of coördination is probably due to at least two factors. There is, first, the difficulty growing out of inherent characteristics of the typical supervisory organization, made up as it is of a relatively large number of more or less specialized staff members. It is only to be expected that such specialists will be guided, in large measure by their enthusiasm for their specialty. Especially is this true where there is little guidance on the part of the superintendent. In the second place this absence of guidance and direction probably results from a lack of satisfactory techniques. There is no thought of undue interference with the plans and efforts of the supervisor. How to guide supervisory effort so that it will contribute to a coördinated program without hampering the supervisor in her work seems to be the problem. It seems, therefore, that more effective coördination will result from modifications in the supervisory organization, as well as from the development of effective techniques for the guidance of supervisory effort.

CHAPTER VI

Supervisory Procedure

All supervisory officers were asked to report the proportion of time given to supervision, teaching, and other activities. They were asked also to describe their visitation procedure as regards the number and the length of visits. Special supervisors were asked to describe the procedures followed in teaching and supervising the special subjects by checking descriptive items in a prepared list. The primary purpose of this part of the investigation was to compare the practices of various kinds of supervisors rather than to make an accurate time or activity analysis of any particular supervisor's work.

SUPERVISION BY PRINCIPALS

Principals, in this study, were divided into three classes, those who teach full-time, those who teach part-time, and those who do no teaching. Since those who teach full-time are in reality not supervisors, they were not included in the list to whom forms were sent. Forms were, however, sent to all principals who had even as much as one school period set aside for supervision. All who gave one-fourth or more of their time to teaching were considered part-time principals, while those who gave less than one-fourth were considered full-time supervising principals.

An examination of Tables XLI, XLII, and XLIII shows that more than two-thirds of those classed as non-teaching principals actually do no teaching. Likewise more than one-half of those classed as teaching principals give one-half or more of their time to teaching. There seems to be a tendency for principals to be either primarily, teaching principals or primarily, supervising principals. If they give as much as one-fourth of their time to teaching, the likelihood is that they give one-half or more. If they give less than one-fourth of their time to teaching, the chances are they give no time to teaching. This situation was true also of the investigation made by the Department of Elementary School Principals.[1] In this investigation the principals were divided into two classes on the same basis as the one used in the present study.

[1] *The Seventh Yearbook*, The Department of Elementary School Principals, April, 1928. p. 158.

TABLE XLI

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO TEACHING

Proportion	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	83	26	55	23	17	6	10
1/5	32	5	10	1	3	5	3
1/4	.....	5	2	2	2	10	6
1/3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	1
2/5	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....
1/2	.....	1	1	2	18	21	24
3/5	.....	.....	2	.....	1	.....	.....
2/3	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	.....
3/4	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....
4/5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	1
All	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	4	.....
No data	24	7	8	3	9	15	10
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	.....	.....	.....	.....	1/2	1/2	1/2

TIME DISTRIBUTION

Principals were asked to indicate in fractions the proportion of time given to supervision, teaching, and other activities. About one-third of the principals reported by superintendents as full-time supervising principals do a small amount of teaching, generally about one class period per day. This may be demonstration teaching, substitute work, or the teaching of a class under a departmentalized organization. The typical part-time supervising principal gives one-half of his time to teaching, while the typical full-time supervising principal gives no time to teaching (Table XLI). When the amounts of time given to supervision are tabulated it is found that principals devote, on an average, one-half of their time to supervision, while part-time principals give one-fourth of their time to the same activity (Table XLIII). The fractions given by the principals do not always total one. However, it is probable that time not accounted for is used for clerical and administrative detail. Hence it seems that freeing the principal from his teaching duties, which, in general, account for

one-fourth of his time, adds this time or a considerable part of it to his supervisory work.

As has been shown in other studies there are, in reality, no "full-time supervising" principals. There are principals who do no teaching, but in the large they give probably less than one-half of their time to supervision. The administrative and clerical detail in connection with the school must be done. It demands and secures a large share of the principal's time whether or not he teaches. If he does teach, supervisory work probably suffers in proportion to the amount of his teaching.

TABLE XLII

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISING PRINCIPALS OF SIX AND EIGHT YEAR SCHOOLS ACCORDING TO PROPORTIONS OF TIME DEVOTED TO SUPERVISION, TEACHING AND OTHER ACTIVITIES

Proportion	Activity					
	Supervision		Teaching		Other	
	6 year	8 year	6 year	8 year	6 year	8 year
0	.....	.....	36	39	6	5
1/5	2	7	12	12	1	2
1/4	8	6	.....	.....	11	6
1/3	4	7	.....	.....	3	7
2/5	1	2	.....	.....	6	4
1/2	23	16	.....	.....	16	18
3/5	1	3	.....	.....	.....	.....
2/3	3	2	.....	.....	4	4
3/4	7	7	.....	.....	3	2
4/5	3	1	.....	.....	3	2
All	5	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
No data	4	6	13	10	8	10
Total	61	61	61	61	61	61
Medians	1/2	1/2	.....	.....	1/2	1/2

TYPE OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION AND TIME DISTRIBUTION

It was thought possible that the principals in six-year elementary schools might show practices in time given to teaching different from those of eight-year school principals. For instance, it would be simpler for a principal of an eight-year school, having departmental work in grades 7 and 8, to teach one period per day, than it would be for principals of schools with no departmental organization. There were, however, no significant differences between the practices of

principals of various types of schools. Table XLII compares the time distribution between teaching, supervision, and other activities for 61 supervising principals in six-year schools and for a like number of supervising principals in eight-year schools. Practically no differences are shown.

TABLE XLIII

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO SUPERVISION

Proportion	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	2	10	6	.....	6	.....	5
1/5	10	2	13	.....	2	7	3
1/4	18	5	19	.....	4	7	9
1/3	10	2	3	.....	.....	2	1
2/5	4	1	4	.....	.....	.....	.....
1/2	39	13	26	2	20	20	21
3/5	4	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	.....
2/3	6	3	1	.....	.....	1	2
3/4	14	1	.....	15	4	8	3
4/5	8	.....	.....	.....	2	7	.....
All	9	1	.....	7	4	3	1
No data	15	7	8	7	9	15	10
Totals	118	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	1/2	2/5	1/4	3/4	1/2	1/2	1/2

SUPERVISION BY HIGH-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

The typical junior or senior high-school principal gives no time to teaching (Table XLI). The typical junior high-school principal gives more time to supervision and less time to other activities than does the senior high-school principal (Table XLIV). Commonly he has been an elementary school principal, and he evidently carries with him something of his former procedure. The typical high-school principal states that he gives one-fourth of his time to supervision, which is exactly one-half of that reported by elementary school principals (Table XLIII). He is giving one-half of his total time to activities other than teaching or supervision. Administration, extracurricular activities, personnel problems among students, and a

multitude of miscellaneous problems attendant to the management of a rather large and complex organization absorb his time. Under these conditions what shall be the nature of his supervisory leadership? To what extent can he delegate responsibility for instructional improvement to heads of departments or teachers, personnel work to deans or advisors, and administrative detail to clerical assistants? The problem of the high-school principal is to set up for the improvement of instruction in his school an organization which shall best utilize the capacities of teachers, heads of departments and assistants.

TABLE XLIV

DISTRIBUTION OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS ACCORDING TO PROPORTION OF TIME DEVOTED TO ACTIVITIES OTHER THAN TEACHING OR SUPERVISION

Proportion	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	17	11	20	19	30	35	25
1/5	7	2	4	2	4	5	2
1/4	18	7	4	7	7	13	13
1/3	12	6	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
2/5	10	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
1/2	35	7	23	.....	2	1	4
2/3	8	.....	5	.....	.....	1	1
3/4	9	2	7	.....	.....	.....	.....
4/5	6	3	6	.....	2	.....	.....
All	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
No data	19	7	8	3	9	15	10
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	1/2	1/4	1/2	.....	.....	.....	.....

THE WORK OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Quite commonly, special supervisors in schools of the size included in this study do some teaching in the secondary schools. It will be seen that the typical special supervisor gives one-half her time to teaching (Table XLI). Less than 10 percent of the total number of supervisors give more than half time to teaching. In general, it may be said that practically all special supervisors in these cities have one-half of their time or more free for supervision in the elementary schools (Table XLIII). Few of these supervisors indicate that they

devote any considerable amount of time to activities other than teaching or supervision, the median for all special supervisors being 0 (Table XLIV). Likewise the median proportion of time devoted to supervision is one-half.

The typical supervisor of art, music, and physical education spends half her time teaching in the secondary schools and the other half in supervisory work in the elementary schools. In general, she gives little time to activities other than teaching or supervision. When compared with the similar data presented for principals, this lack of time devoted to "other activities" is noteworthy. Probably the absence of certain types of administrative work in the special supervisor's program accounts for this difference. Even though the special supervisor spends half of her day in teaching she has more time available for supervision than does the typical principal.

VISITATION PRACTICE BY PRINCIPALS AND SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Classroom visitation, according to data in a later chapter, is still the supervisory activity used most. It is, therefore, of interest to

TABLE XLV

COMPARISON OF NUMBER OF VISITS PER MONTH MADE BY SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

Number of Visits	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
0	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....
1	2	2	11	1	8	3	3
2	10	4	17	4	30	28	22
3	6	1	3	1	1	.....	3
4	15	2	3	2	7	24	9
5	3	1	3	.....	.....	.....	.....
6	2	.....	4	.....	.....	1	.....
8 or more	15	2	.....	.....	.....	2	2
Varies	58	21	26	18	5	3	7
Short daily	15	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
No data	23	11	13	5	3	8	9
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	4	3*	2*	Varies	2	2	3

*Based on cases giving definite number of visits per month.

secure facts concerning various practices in this connection. Of course, it is extremely difficult to secure a true picture of such practices. When principals and supervisors in this study were asked to describe their visitation procedure, it was not expected to secure absolutely accurate figures concerning the number and length of visits, but rather to secure data concerning relative practices of various types of supervisors. It was believed that principals and general supervisors would have considerable difficulty in giving exact reports, while, to specialized supervisors, visitation is a regular and measured practice which can be quantitatively described. The data here presented confirmed this belief.

As is shown in Table XLV, principals have great difficulty in giving exact data on the number of visits; more than half of all principals except high-school principals either fail to supply any data or indicate that the number of visits varies. On the other hand, Table XLV shows that special supervisors, in by far the greater number of cases, give the number of visits specifically. Table XLVI indicates that principals, in general, have as much difficulty in giving

TABLE XLVI

COMPARISON OF LENGTH OF VISITS MADE BY SUPERVISORY OFFICERS

Proportion	Number						
	Principals			Supervisors			
	Elementary	Junior High School	High School	General	Art	Music	Physical Education
5	1	1	3	.....	.....	.....	.....
10	8	1	7	.....	.....	.....	1
15	7	1	3	.....	1	3	7
20	12	5	6	1	3	40	21
25	6	1	3	1	10	2	.....
30	17	1	6	5	25	5	6
40	4	1	6	.....	1	1	.....
45	1	1	6	.....	1	.....	.....
60	8	2	4	3	1	2	.....
Varies	59	21	11	18	7	10	11
No data	16	10	25	3	5	7	9
Totals	139	45	80	31	54	70	55
Medians	25	20*	30*	30	30	20	20

*Based on cases giving exact figure.

the length of their visits as they have in specifying their frequency. Again more than half of all principals, except high-school principals, either fail to supply data or state that their practice varies. Special supervisors, however, seem to have no difficulty in giving the length of visits (Table XLVI).

In order to provide a further check on the above data, special supervisors were asked to indicate their visitation procedure by checking those of the items found in Table XLVII which best described their practice. In general, at least three-fourths of the special supervisors make regular scheduled visits. Likewise, they state that they divide their time equally among the teachers.

Not only are visits of special supervisors regular, but the activities during the visits are quite uniform. Nearly three-fourths of the special supervisors indicate that they spend the greater part of their visitation time teaching for demonstration. Only 10 percent indicate that they spend the greater part of visitation time in observation. It appears that the demonstration lesson during a scheduled visit is the special supervisor's principal technique. This situation becomes

TABLE XLVII

COMPARING PRACTICES IN THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SUPERVISION AND TEACHING OF VARIOUS SPECIAL SUBJECTS

Practice	Subject and Percent			
	Art	Music	Physical Education	Penmanship
Subject taught entirely by classroom teachers	62	71	54	55
Subject taught entirely by supervisors	12	8	8	.....
Subject taught entirely by special teachers	4	13	16	15
Supervisor teaches for demonstration only	74	41	72	55
Supervisor visits regularly on schedule	70	79	88	75
Supervisor visits unannounced with no schedule	10	15	8	15
Spends most of visitation time teaching for demonstration	74	72	58	65
Spends most of visitation time in observation	10	10	8	10
Divides time equally among teachers	84	81	78	55
Visits some frequently, others seldom	10	22	14	25
Prepares course of study for teachers	92	82	72	65
Organizes teachers for making course of study	8	10	2	10
Works under the direction of superintendent	30	50	42	40
Works under general supervisor	6	10	4	5
Works independently planning own work	86	59	70	75
Works under principal when in building	8	19	14	15
Number replying	54	70	55	22

even more striking when discussion of supervisory activities is considered in a later chapter.

From 65 to 90 percent of the special supervisors state that they prepare the course of study for teachers. Only from 2 to 10 percent indicate that they organize teachers for participation in the preparation of the course of study. (Table XLVII).

While from 30 to 50 percent indicate that they work under the direction of the superintendent, 59 to 86 percent state that they work independently, planning their own work. Perhaps this may be interpreted to mean that they feel responsible to the superintendent but plan their own activities without much direction or guidance. Commonly these special supervisors are not responsible to either building principals or general supervisors.

VIEWPOINTS IN REGARD TO SUPERVISION

Having shown definite differences between the practices of general supervisors like principals and special supervisors, it was proposed to determine whether there were also marked differences in regard to the viewpoints of the two groups. For example, shall initiative for improvement of teaching rest with the supervisor or the teacher? Shall the supervisor go *to* the teachers, find out what they are doing, and work in detail on making improvement or shall the supervisor merely create conditions for self-improvement on the part of teachers? Shall her aim be to see that all teach in accordance with certain procedures, or is it better for the supervisor to give her attention to the problem of developing initiative and originality? Shall the supervisor tell the teacher how to teach, or shall she help the teacher discover for herself how to teach? Is it desirable to secure uniformity of procedure on the part of all teachers in a system, if so, to what extent? Must distinctions be made in principle between supervision of general subjects such as reading and arithmetic and special subjects like art and music? What differences, if any, exist between elementary and secondary supervision?

THE PROCEDURE FOLLOWED

There was no thought of attempting to answer these questions in this study. It was felt, however, that it would be helpful to compare the attitudes of the various groups of supervisors together with those of specialists in school administration toward certain principles which might be a basis for supervisory procedure.

From a study of the practices in the ten Minnesota school systems visited, a number of varying tendencies were found. These were

embodied in statements which were augmented by others derived from various sources. There is no claim that the list of statements is comprehensive or that it includes the "right" principles. In case statements on the form did not describe individual views blank spaces were left with the suggestion that those filling out the form, write in such spaces, the principles to which they subscribed. Very few such additions were made. When made, they were in almost every case applications or restatements of the items on the form.

The results of the inquiry as here reported are probably a measure of the extent to which individuals within the various groups agree to the statements on the form. These groups may approve many other principles not found in the list. If, however, the statements found in the form are not descriptive of the viewpoints of the various groups, this fact has not been indicated in the replies to any significant extent.

VIEWPOINTS OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

It will be noticed that the four groups of special supervisors are in substantial agreement that it is the supervisor's function to visit the teacher and assist with the detail of teaching procedure (Table XLVIII). They also agree that in this work the supervisor should take the initiative and see that certain objectives are attained. Music and physical education supervisors are least enthusiastic about stimulation of teacher effort through study and experimentation. Likewise, music and physical education supervisors, in substantial numbers, believe that their function is to see to it that their subjects are taught in accordance with certain standards and methods. Approximately equal percentages believe that their function is to develop originality and initiative. In general, it may be said that the majority of these supervisors do not believe that much initiative for improvement of teaching rests either with teachers or heads of departments. They have little approval to offer for the policy of having the supervisor visit only "on call." They agree in refusing to assume teachers to be highly-trained specialists who can direct their own work without detailed supervision. At the same time they fail to see in the variety of subjects any great obstacle. On an average, about 30 percent of these special supervisors believe that conformity to a particular method is essential in the teaching of their subject. It is worthy of note in this connection, that only 3 percent of the superintendents in these school systems attach similar importance to conformity to a particular method in these same subjects. Experts in administration

TABLE XLVIII

COMPARING THE PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS GROUPS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS WHO SUBSCRIBE TO CERTAIN VIEWPOINTS IN REGARD TO SUPERVISION

Statement	Percent*						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
It is the supervisor's function to visit classes and confer with teachers concerning the detail of teaching method	47	56	54	70	52	53	44
The supervisor should take the initiative in the work of improving instruction	50	52	60	58	58	69	50
The responsibility of the supervisor is to see that certain definite objectives are attained in instruction	50	60	68	86	84	78	68
The chief supervisory function of the supervisor is not to show teachers how to teach their subjects but rather to stimulate effort on the part of teachers in improving their own teaching through study and experimentation	31	52	75	88	68	41	30
Initiative for improvement of instruction rests primarily with heads of departments	15	18	8	18	32	32	30
Initiative for improvement of instruction rests primarily with teachers	19	20	17	21	28	6	20
The supervisor should extend assistance chiefly "on call," that is, help those who ask for assistance	7	32	7	19	18	20	10
The supervisor should assume teachers to be highly trained specialists who are competent to direct their own work without detailed supervision	4	2	18	14	....	....	3
Detailed assistance to teachers is impractical because of the variety of subjects offered	3	4	23	12	14	5	6
Conformity to a particular method is essential	3	6	....	....	14	30	28
Originality and initiative on the part of teachers is more important than uniformity in method	44	68	....	....	66	39	40

*1—Superintendents.
2—Specialists.
3—High-School Principals.
4—Elementary School Principals.
5—Art Supervisors.
6—Music Supervisors.
7—Physical Educaton Supervisors.

and supervision likewise attach little importance to conformity in method.

PRINCIPLES UNDER WHICH GENERAL SUPERVISION IS ORGANIZED

Principals seem to have less faith in conformity to certain methods than the special subject supervisors. They give higher rank to stimulation of study and experimentation. Superintendents seem to have less approval to give for study and experimentation than principals. Perhaps the word "experimentation" in this statement is responsible for the small number of superintendents who subscribe to it. Only physical education supervisors subscribe to this statement with less frequency than do superintendents. On the other hand, nearly half

of the superintendents believe that originality and initiative on the part of teachers is more important than method. Conversely, few of them believe that conformity to method is essential. Development of individuality and initiative may be an ideal recognized by these superintendents but not achieved, either because of lack of ways and means or because of the fear of the consequences.

PRINCIPLES UNDER WHICH SECONDARY SCHOOL SUPERVISION IS ORGANIZED

Very small differences are shown between the viewpoints of elementary and high-school principals. It is true that only two-thirds as many high-school as elementary school principals subscribe to the statement that it is the principal's function to visit classes and confer with teachers concerning the detail of teaching method. On the other hand, a slightly larger percentage of high-school than elementary school principals believe the principal should take the initiative in improving instruction. High-school principals seem less concerned than elementary school principals about the attainment of definite objectives. To an even less extent than elementary school principals the high-school principals assume that initiative for improvement of instruction rests with teachers. A smaller number of them believe that the principal should visit "on call" only. A slightly larger percentage of high-school principals see an obstacle in the variety of subjects. Likewise, in larger numbers they assume teachers to be highly trained specialists competent to direct their own work without detailed supervision. However, the differences are probably too slight to be significant. There may be great differences between elementary and high-school supervision, but such differences are not reflected in the reactions of the principals who are now doing the supervisory work in these schools.

Superintendents were asked to check the statements separately for the special subjects and separately for elementary and high schools. In general, they checked all columns the same way indicating in no way that differences existed in principle between supervision in different schools or subjects. Certain differences in activities carried on will be brought out in another chapter.

VIEWPOINTS OF SPECIALISTS

Judgments of specialists seem to differ very little from those of principals. This is likewise true of the judgments of those who train special supervisors. Greatest differences exist between judgments of special supervisors and all other groups. One or two of the specialists returned the forms without checking them with the comment that

they were unable to express their views on the form. One stated that he could not check the form "without restricting his views." This, of course, was expected. For this reason blank spaces were left, with the caption, "Others, name them." In view of the expressions to the effect that the statements on the form did not describe all possible views it was thought that perhaps a considerable number would add additional items. This, however, did not materialize. In all, only 18 specialists added items to the list. In most cases these were comments concerning items already found in the list of statements. For illustrative purposes the nature of such comments is here discussed. One authority points out that all supervisory procedure should be tested experimentally. Several seem to believe in greater initiative for teachers, but see a number of difficulties in the way of realization. "Originality is desirable provided it leads to desirable ends." "Many teachers should but can't take initiative in improving their teaching because of lack of training." "We dare not wait for calls from teachers." "In better cases initiative may rest with teacher." "In worst cases explicit directions must be given the teacher." One authority believes a general supervisor in high school to be impractical because of the variety of subjects. Another questions the feasibility of detailed supervision in high school. Some emphasize "coöperation," "enthusiasm," "joy in work," "research," "individual differences." Finally one specialist states that "all the generalizations are wrong, including this one."

INFLUENCE OF THE TEACHER'S TRAINING

In these various comments the feeling can be discerned that the principles subscribed to and procedures followed may be determined to a great extent by the qualifications of the teachers supervised. It is possible that (temporarily at least) with untrained teachers it may be necessary to prescribe methods in detail and "show teachers how to teach." Highly trained teachers, however, may demand an entirely different supervisory procedure based upon a different concept of the supervisor's function.

SUPERVISORY PROCEDURE IN THE TYPICAL SCHOOL SYSTEM AND ITS IMPLICATIONS

The typical supervising elementary school principal as defined in the present study indicates that he gives half of his time to supervisory work, while his part-time teaching colleague devotes one-fourth of his time to supervision. The typical junior high-school principal

gives two-fifths of his time to supervision, slightly more than his colleague in four or six year high schools who gives one-fourth of his time to the same activity. Principals vary their visitation practice to such an extent that the typical principal has great difficulty in reporting either the number of his visits to each teacher or the length of his visits. The typical supervisor gives half of her time to elementary school supervision and the remainder to secondary school teaching. She visits all teachers with equal frequency. Her visits are scheduled and of equal length with all teachers. During her visits she spends the greater part of her time teaching for demonstration.

PRINCIPALS

It is clear that as far as principals are concerned, their teaching duties are not the only factor in the time which they give to supervision. Clerical and administrative detail make inroads on the principal's time due to the lack of clerical assistance and uneconomical methods of handling the details. At the same time, probably it is true likewise that whatever time principals are devoting to supervision, inadequate results are secured to a large extent because the most economical and efficient supervisory techniques and plans of organization are not employed. Little is known concerning the relative contribution of "administrative" work and "supervisory" work to the improvement of instruction. It is possible that the solution of the problem may be found, not by so organizing the principal's work that he gives less and less time to administrative work, but rather by helping him to conduct both types of activity in more economical ways so that more of both types of activity may be done.

SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

The staff members in charge of special subjects in these cities are in reality *supervisors*. They are teachers as well, but in varying capacities. They teach for demonstration in the elementary schools. Such teaching is their principal supervisory activity. Likewise they teach in the secondary schools in varying amounts but, in general, this teaching approximates one-half of their time. As supervisors they encounter the problems which confront any supervisor and which, no doubt, demand specific training and experience. Some institutions base their training programs on the assumption that their graduates are to become teachers of special subjects. After they have had experience and further training they are to become true

supervisors. However, in so far as such graduates enter school systems of the size included in this study, they take on actual supervisory functions, giving in most instances at least one-half of their time to the work of supervision. Commonly, also, these specialists become supervisors immediately following the completion of their training without any apprenticeship as teachers. This apprenticeship is very noticeable in the case of general supervisors, such as principals and general grade supervisors. It seems, in general, to be lacking among the special supervisors.

It would seem to be a matter of considerable importance to training institutions in planning their courses to know whether, in the large, their graduates become, primarily, special teachers or, in reality, supervisors. If such graduates are to embark immediately on supervisory work, it would seem that their training should include courses in the technique of supervision. It may, of course, be argued that inexperienced persons should not assume supervisory responsibility. In practice, however, this is what happens.

Finally, it is evident that special supervision, as conducted in the cities here included, is largely a demonstration procedure. As such it is very different from the supervision provided by principals in the regular subjects. The latter type of supervision seems more variable, depending on the individual needs of teachers. Special supervision seems to be dispensed in equal amounts to all teachers more or less irrespective of individual needs. Its purpose is apparently normative. It seeks to maintain instruction in the special subjects at definite levels of efficiency through the employment of equally definite methods.

The typical special supervisor probably bases her procedure on the assumption that the classroom teacher is relatively untrained in the subject and, therefore, must be given very close direction and oversight. Whether, with present training programs for classroom teachers in teachers' colleges and normal schools, this detailed oversight is necessary, is another question.

Marked differences in viewpoint have been shown to exist between general and special supervisors. In these school systems teachers are being supervised by persons with widely different concepts of the function and purpose of supervision. It may be that a fifth-grade teacher who is free to use any method she chooses in reading, is held rigidly to a prescribed method in music. The method used in reading may be diametrically opposite to the one employed in music. For all we know they may be entirely opposite in educational outcomes. Equally marked differences are here found in procedure. In the

next two chapters differences are also shown in the activities employed and in judgments concerning the value of activities. It is not within the province of this study to indicate which of the two groups takes the right point of view, follows the best procedure or employs the most effective devices. It seems hardly likely, however, that such differences in procedure and point of view as are here shown can contribute to the effective functioning of the supervisory organization as a whole. For this reason it would appear that very important reasons must be advanced for these differences if they are to merit a continuance.

PART II

Supervisory Activities and Devices

CHAPTER VII

Fact Finding Activities and Devices

As work in supervision has been continued, it has, from time to time, developed certain techniques. Supervisors have employed certain activities and devices which might be called supervisory tools. A portion of the literature on supervision has consisted of the discussion of these tools, their value, or how to conduct them effectively. For example, there is a body of literature on teachers meetings, visitation, conferences with teachers, and many others. Entire books have been written on the technique, for instance, of visitation and conference.[1]

Generally speaking little is known concerning the extent to which these activities and devices are employed. Where employed, little is known concerning their value. Much criticism of supervision is heard both from those who supervise and those who are supervised. The literature is being increased by contributions dealing with the problem of making supervision more acceptable to teachers. However, we know little what teachers think of the various tools we employ. The problem is, of course, always complicated by the qualitative aspect. For example, teachers meetings may be effective if well conducted. So with other activities or devices. Nevertheless, certain activities probably have more inherent value than others. Likewise some activities are without doubt used more than others.

STUDIES OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

Studies of supervisory activities in general have been of four types. The first of these seeks to determine the functions of supervision. An example of this type is that by Mead.[2] At an elementary education seminar in the summer of 1923, 18 teachers were asked to formulate the cardinal duties of the supervisor. The duties listed were submitted to all members of the group for ranking. The principal headings in the list are the following, arranged in rank order:

To inspire and lead	1
To improve instruction	2

[1] Anderson, Barr, and Bush. *Visiting the Teacher at Work.*

[2] Mead, Cyrus D., "The Supervisor's Job." *The Journal of Educational Method.* iv: 270-72.

To strengthen the staff..... 3
To improve the curricula..... 4
To evaluate text material..... 5
To administer mental and educational tests..... 6

Studies of this type seek to determine what the "supervisor is for."

TABLE XLIX

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS*
(An analysis of 2516 school days of 130 principals)

Activity	Percent of Time	Number Engaged
A. Direct Supervision of Teaching	15.8	.....
1. Observation of teaching	14.05	119
2. Activities related to observation	.48	.....
a. Study dealing with observation	.09	8
b. Conference on observation	.23	13
c. Reports on observation	.06	7
d. Assisting teacher observed	.02	1
e. Checking teacher's planbook	.02	2
f. Undefined supervision	.07	2
3. Demonstration teaching	.12	.....
a. Preparing to teach lesson	.....	1
b. Teaching demonstration lessons	.....	5
c. Observing demonstration lessons	.....	3
d. Discussing demonstration lessons	.....	1
4. Conference on teaching	.52	12
B. Stimulating Professional Study	.18	.....
a. In extension classes	.....	12
b. In summer school	.....	1
c. In school library	.....	1
C. Improving Conditions for Teaching	4.72	.....
1. Diagnosis and classification of pupils	.....	.....
a. Selecting appropriate tests	.....	4
b. Giving tests	.....	33
c. Marking and scoring tests	.....	22
d. Recording test results	.....	11
e. Interpreting test results	.....	32
f. Follow-up work after testing	.....	11
g. Arranging for testing	.....	2
h. Conferences on testing	.....	3
i. Studying teachers marks	.....	2
2. Revising course of study	.55	.....
a. Surveying social conditions	.....	5
b. Eliminating obsolete materials	.....	1
c. Selecting new materials	.....	10
d. Organizing and explaining new materials	.....	1
3. Conference and case studies	1.23	.....
a. With pupils	.....	50
b. With parents	.....	6
c. With visiting teacher or social worker	.....	5
d. With school psychologist	.....	1
e. Dealing with failures in school	.....	1

*Trabue, M. R., *The Activities in Which Principals Are Engaged*, First Yearbook of the Conference on Educational Method, p. 131.

They do not indicate, however, how the supervisor is to accomplish any of the duties listed.

The second type seeks to determine what duties principals or supervisors perform. An illustration is furnished in the study by Trabue. Principals were asked to record all supervisory activities performed. The results are shown in Table XLIX.

The third type of study seeks to determine what duties principals or supervisors perform in improving instruction. Such studies do not include all kinds of duties performed. In addition to taking inventory of duties or activities used, they attempt an evaluation of such activities. An example of this type is the study by Dyer.[3]

The study aims to determine: 1. The activities which the elementary school principals in city school systems most frequently report for the improvement of instruction; 2. The influence, if any, of the training, experience, and school conditions of the principals on the activities undertaken; 3. The relative importance of activities carried on for the improvement of instruction. It also proposes to set up a program of such activities which could be recommended to school authorities.

The data were assembled by means of a check list of 208 activities classified in sections dealing with: 1. Technic of teaching; 2. Training teachers in service; 3. Classification and promotion of pupils; 4. Curriculum; 5. Selection and use of school supplies; 6. General school conditions.

The principals were asked to give information on all factors which it was believed might affect the supervisory activities.

In addition 43 educational specialists were asked to rate the activities included on a five-point scale. They were also asked to select those which they believed should be included in the work of the principal.

The most frequently reported activities are the following:

a. Improving Technic of Teaching:	Percent Reporting
Suggests How to Adapt Methods to Individual Differences	80.5
Gives Educational Tests in 3d, 4th, and 5th Grades	73.4
Same in 6th, 7th, and 8th Grades	70.8
Discusses Special Methods	68.9

[3] Dyer, William P. *Activities of the Elementary School Principal for the Improvement of Instruction. The Kind of Supervisory Program Which the City Superintendent Should Set up for His Elementary School Principals,* New York City: Teachers College, Columbia University Contributions to Education, No. 274, 109 pp.

Suggests How to Guide Pupils in Planning Projects..... 68.6
Suggests How to Conduct Types of Lessons.....68.8
b. Improving Teachers in Service:
Encourages Professional Organizations..... 95.1
Holds Individual Conferences..... 92.5
Sends Teachers to Visit..... 79.1
Holds Group Conferences..... 72.4
c. Improving Classification and Promotion of Pupils:
Makes Special Promotions..... 76.2
Arranges for Physical Examinations..... 71.4
Gives Educational Tests to Classify Pupils..... 70.3
Suggests How to Improve Attendance..... 69.7
d. Improving the Curriculum:
Suggests Parts to Be Emphasized..... 53.7
Suggests Minimum Essentials..... 52.5
Informs of Changes Which Professors Suggest..... 48.0
e. Improving Selection and Use of School Supplies:
Suggests How to Use Supplies..... 73.0
f. Improving General School Conditions:
Suggests How to Improve Discipline..... 79.6
Suggests How to Make Program Schedules..... 74.8
Suggests How to Improve Appearance of Rooms..... 74.3

Of factors qualifying the work of the principal, the most favoring were graduation from college, two years of experience, size of school twenty-eight or more teachers, no regular teaching duties, and at least one full time clerk. At least 70 percent of the specialists included 90 percent of the activities in the work of the principal.

The fourth type seeks to evaluate supervisory activities in terms of the judgments of teachers. Thus, Valentine sought to determine what teachers would want supervisors to do.[4] From conferences with supervisors a list of 36 activities was prepared. This list was submitted to teachers with instructions to mark all activities of which they approved with a plus sign. They were also asked to circle the ten activities in the list which they thought were best. In all 98 replies were received. The following are the ten highest ranking items:

1. Hold office hours for teachers seeking help
2. Give classroom demonstrations when requested
3. Hold instructional group meetings with new teachers

[4] Valentine, P. F. "A Job Analysis of Elementary Supervision," *The Journal of Educational Method.* v: 279-282.

4. Plan with new teachers individually
5. Advise and assist in collection of collateral materials
6. Help teachers with broad and suggestive recommendations
7. Hold friendly personal conference with teacher following visit
8. Hold frequent instructional conferences with teacher groups
9. Send out mimeographed lesson helps
10. Encourage invitations from teachers for special visits to their classrooms

It was found that 25 items received more than a 50 percent vote, a fact which the author of the study feels is encouraging to supervisors, indicating that activities are at hand which are well received by teachers. The highest ranking activities are in the main those which seek to instruct the teacher, which provide concrete assistance, which inspire, establish coöperation, improve the school administration and curriculum, and contribute to the professional and cultural improvement of the teacher. The lowest ranking activities are those which interfere with the teacher's freedom, dictate what she is to do, or annoy her during a recitation. The activities in this study were not grouped as to purpose. Nor was any provision made for a qualitative evaluation of the activities. Teachers may approve of an activity but there are degrees of approval. A teacher might be rather indifferent toward an activity but would still hesitate about refusing to approve it. The plan employed in the study gives little opportunity for teachers to register any degree of enthusiasm they have for activities, or to show any opposition to various devices.

RECAPITULATION

Studies, examples of which have been reviewed, go to indicate what the supervisor does in terms of the specific acts or purposes of such acts, but frequently do not tell what activities or devices (tools) are employed. Likewise these studies fail to take account of varying degrees of emphasis in practice and varying degrees of approval in the efforts at evaluation. The supervisor, we learn, does a certain thing, but we do not know to what extent. It may be receiving special emphasis, or it may be only occasionally used; likewise an activity or device may be approved, but with what degree of approval we do not know.

An effort has been made in this study to secure a measure of the degree of use or emphasis which the various supervisory activities and devices are receiving as well as the judgments of various groups concerning the value of these same activities.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE TECHNIQUE

The first step in procedure was an effort to answer the question "What are the activities and devices which are being used?" The literature on supervision was examined for any mention of activities or devices. In all, more than 100 articles and books on supervision were consulted. The list of activities thus found was augmented by suggestions from supervisors and college of education faculty members. It was then organized under five heads, as follows:

1. Fact-finding activities and devices
2. Fact presentation activities
3. Activities and devices for stimulating growth and improvement
4. Activities and devices in the training of teachers and the improvement of instruction
5. Procedures for evaluating the results of supervision

In this form the inventory of activities was sent to 25 Minneapolis and St. Paul principals and an equal number of Minnesota small town superintendents. At the right of each page three columns were provided, headed, "Much used," "Used some," "Not used." The principals and superintendents were asked to place a check mark after each item in the column which best described the extent to which they used the particular activity or device. The comments made by those who coöperated facilitated the revision of the inventory. It was now decided to provide four columns instead of three, introducing a column headed "Used very little." It was felt that this arrangement would provide a more flexible and descriptive checking procedure. It was also thought that under the four column arrangement there would be more hesitation about checking an item in the much used column. It was believed that supervisors would check in the "Used some" column activities which, while employed, were really not being emphasized.

The inventory, including exactly the same items as above, was then prepared with four different columns, headed "Your Judgment." The columns were, "Of great value," "Of some value," "Of little or no value," and "Undesirable, should not be used." Here the purpose was to get the individual's judgment concerning the effectiveness of the activity or device rather than the extent to which it was used. It was thought that the four column arrangement here, as in the case of practice, would make for cautiousness in checking in the column headed "Of great value."

It was planned to submit the forms to a considerable number of teachers in order to get not only their judgments of the value of the devices but also to find out how the practice in their school systems

appeared to them as the persons supervised. From such a study it would be possible to compare existing practice as it was pictured by teachers with the judgments which these same teachers expressed concerning the value of the activities and devices. These were then compared with the values of superintendents, supervisors, principals, and special subject supervisors. The hope was to secure from the summary of replies a picture of practice by different types of supervisory officers as well as their judgments concerning the value of the devices included in the inventory. Finally, it was proposed to submit the same list to specialists in administration and supervision.

SECURING JUDGMENTS OF TEACHERS

To facilitate the whole matter of developing a technique for securing significant data in connection with the organization and administration of supervision in cities of the size selected, permission was secured to visit ten Minnesota school systems. The superintendents coöperating arranged for interviews with all supervisory staff members. A general teachers meeting was also arranged during which the materials were presented to teachers, and filled out by them in the meeting. Teachers were told that under no conditions would the replies be shown to any local school officer. It was hoped to secure frank replies concerning supervisory practice in the system. In a few instances, because of conflicting local conditions, teachers meetings were impossible. In these cases superintendents kindly distributed the materials and returned them when completed. There was no disposition on the part of the teachers to check more items in the "much used" column when they returned them through the superintendent's office than when the forms were filled out in teachers meetings and immediately collected.

There was some question as to whether the checking of practice in the school system might be reflected in the judgments expressed. For this reason the forms on practice were collected before the forms on judgments were distributed and filled out. However, in the case of the materials which were distributed by superintendents and filled out by teachers at their leisure, no such tendency could be noticed.

In all, forms were filled out by 377 elementary school teachers and 334 high-school teachers. The forms were so arranged that blank spaces were available in which teachers could add other activities or devices not found in the inventory as supplied. Very few such activities were added, however. In practically all instances these were not new or different activities but various forms of the ones included in the original list.

Having secured the data from teachers and supervisors in the ten Minnesota systems visited, the forms were printed and, through the courtesy of superintendents, sent to all supervisory staff members in the 171 cities who agreed to coöperate in the study. The numbers of supervisors given in the tables represent the number of supervisors of each kind sending usable returns.

THE BASIS OF RANKING

Several schemes for weighting and ranking the items in this part of the study were considered. It was felt that the percentage of individuals in any group checking any activity in the "much used" column was probably an index of the degree of emphasis which an activity is receiving at the hands of this group. In the case of teachers it was felt that teachers would check in this column only those activities

TABLE L

COMPARING THE RANK ORDERS OF FACT-FINDING ACTIVITIES ACCORDING TO TEACHERS' JUDGMENTS OF THEIR VALUE AS SHOWN BY WEIGHTED AND UNWEIGHTED PERCENTAGES

Activity	Rank Order Unweighted	Rank Order Weighted	Percent Unweighted	Weighted Value
A. Classroom visitation				
1. Announced visits (i. e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time)	15	15	16	136
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visits)	6	7	32	166
3. Scheduled visits	9	9	27	158
4. Unscheduled visits	12	11	22	151
5. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)	10	14	26	141
6. Short visits (small part of period)	7	5	31	189
Others (name them)				
B. Tests and measurements				
1. Standard achievement tests	3	3	52	224
2. Intelligence tests	1	1	55	234
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)	2	2	55	226
4. Diagnostic tests	4	4	45	197
Others (name them)				
C. Teachers' reports				
1. Time allotment reports	11	13	24	142
2. Reporting methods used	14	10	20	152
3. Reports of objectives of lessons	9	8	28	164
4. Materials used	13	12	21	143
5. Reports of lesson plans	5	6	32	173
Others (name them)				

which were receiving a degree of emphasis which was sufficient to impress the activitiy in their thinking.

Accordingly, two procedures were compared as is shown in Tables L and LI. In treating the replies of teachers on practice, a value of zero was assigned to the checks in the "not used" column, a value of 1 to the "used very little" column, 2 to the "used some" column, and 3 to the "much used or emphasized" column. The percentages following each item were multiplied by these numbers and the items ranked. The procedure is shown in detail in Table L. The items were ranked, also, according to the percentages checking in the "much used" column. The two sets of rankings may be compared in the table. A similar procedure was followed for the same items in terms of judgments of value. The details of this comparison are shown in Table L. The differences between the two methods were not thought to be significant. For this reason it was decided to take the size of the percentages in the "much used" column as the measure of extent of use or emphasis.

TABLE LI

COMPARING RANK ORDERS OF FACT-FINDING ACTIVITIES ACCORDING TO TEACHERS' JUDGMENTS OF THE EXTENT OF THEIR USE, WEIGHTED AND UNWEIGHTED PERCENTAGES

Activity	Unweighted Percent	Weighted	Rank Unweighted	Rank Weighted
A. Classroom visitation	7	112	.....	.....
1. Announced visits (i. e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time)	7	112	15	11
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visit)	58	241	1	1
3. Scheduled visits	15	88	13	14
4. Unscheduled visits	38	149	6	7
5. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)	15	128	12	9
6. Short visits (small part of period)	35	189	7	4
Others (name them)				
B. Tests and measurements				
1. Standard achievement tests	37	182	5	5
2. Intelligence tests	37	201	4	3
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)	49	235	3	2
4. Diagnostic tests	22	130	9	8
Others (name them)				
C. Teachers' reports				
1. Time allotment reports	29	119	8	10
2. Reporting methods used	14	85	14	15
3. Reports of objectives of lessons	21	102	10	12
4. Materials used	19	97	11	13
5. Reports of lesson plans	51	174	2	6

TABLE LII

SHOWING EXTENT TO WHICH SEVERAL TYPES OF SUPERVISORS INDICATE THAT THEY USE VARIOUS FACT-FINDING ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES EXPRESSED IN PERCENTS OF THE TOTAL NUMBER REPLYING WHO STATE THAT THE ACTIVITY IS MUCH USED

Activity or device	Groups and Percent											
	Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	High School	Elementary	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time	Full Time	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Class visitation												
1. Announced visits (i.e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time)	.....	7	1	3	6	.....	7	18	62	62	44	60
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visits)	29	58	68	63	52	65	71	78	14	16	8	10
3. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)	13	15	30	37	24	27	40	66	48	53	30	35
4. Short visits (small part of period)	9	35	37	30	30	28	31	15	2	11	14	10
B. Tests and measurements												
1. Standard achievement tests	12	37	36	11	22	25	25	45	8	5	6	40
2. Intelligence tests	20	37	30	22	30	22	21	27	8	3	6	.....
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)	41	49	39	37	46	41	49	39	8	7	2	20
4. Diagnostic tests	6	22	16	6	16	21	20	42	8	3	.....	20
C. Teachers' reports												
1. Time allotment reports	13	29	16	6	8	18	23	24	6	.....	.....	15
2. Reporting methods used	9	14	14	15	14	10	11	12	.....	7	4	15
3. Reports of objectives of lessons	16	21	19	24	16	12	17	18	6	9	10	10
4. Materials used	12	19	13	13	6	10	19	12	4	12	4	10
5. Reports of lesson plans	34	51	35	21	14	32	49	27	12	15	6	15
D. Systematic conferences with pupils to determine extent to which instruction meets their needs	*	*	9	12	18	12	19	3	4	5	8	10
E. Others (name them)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

*No data.

TABLE LIII

COMPARING THE PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO INDICATE THAT CERTAIN FACT-FINDING ACTIVITIES HAVE GREAT VALUE ACCORDING TO THEIR JUDGMENT

Activity or device	Group and Percent												
		Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	Specialists	High School	Elementary	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time	Non-Teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Classroom visitation													
1. Announced visits (i.e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time	42	9	16	11	6	20	14	17	21	36	40	30	50
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visits)	44	29	32	55	54	48	44	69	54	24	20	18	35
3. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)	60	21	26	54	51	52	42	67	72	40	44	48	40
4. Short visits (small part of period)	2	23	31	13	21	26	27	23	12	8	10	16	10
B Tests and measurements													
1. Standard achievement tests	76	43	51	46	44	54	48	58	45	8	13	26	65
2. Intelligence tests	52	38	55	28	34	40	33	53	57	14	9	12	15
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)	42	41	55	43	40	46	39	50	51	12	17	16	25
4. Diagnostic tests	90	34	45	44	34	21	42	64	66	8	9	16	25
C. Teachers' reports													
1. Time allotment reports	10	8	24	13	10	16	17	24	18	12	10	4	10
2. Reporting methods used	14	7	20	16	20	28	18	17	33	10	5	8	15
3. Reports of objectives of lessons	38	19	28	30	27	20	18	33	36	27	16	8	10
4. Materials used	14	12	21	10	20	12	11	18	24	12	12	10	15
5. Reports of lesson plan	16	22	32	37	25	26	32	48	27	21	14	12	25
D. Systematic conferences with pupils to determine extent to which instruction meets their needs	44	*	*	25	38	42	29	8	15	18	8	18	15
E. Others (name them)													

*No data.

In each case there were a number of individuals who did not check all items. It is not known why certain items are omitted. It may be because the activitiy or device is unfamiliar, or because it is little used. When percentages are based upon the number checking individual items, percentages occasionally result which seem to be untrue in terms of the use which an activity is receiving. For example, if an activity is checked by only 60 percent of the individuals included and 40 percent of the 60 check in the much used column, only 24 percent of the total have actually indicated that the activity is much used. In general, the size of the percentages of individuals not checking an item is closely related to the extent of use shown. In the case of much used items, few fail to check, while in the case of the little used items, many fail to check.

Only the percentages checking the "much used" and "of great value" columns are given in the tables. Experience with replies of certain groups strengthens the belief that the number who fail to check an activity is a rough measure of its unfamiliarity, or lack of value in the judgment of the members of the group. For example, all special subject supervisors leave many items blank. In some instances only one or two activities were checked. As has already been pointed out, special supervisors spend most of their supervisory time in demonstration teaching. Their training has been more in terms of their specialty and less in education or in supervision. They enter upon supervisory duties largely without teaching experience. It seems reasonable to suppose that to many such supervisors the list would seem unfamiliar. Probably when they found only a few familiar activities in the list they proceeded to check these and left the others blank. In the case of the special supervisors, had percentages been taken of only the individuals who checked the items, the results would have been a distorted picture of the situation.

THE FACT FINDING ACTIVITIES

The replies of all the various groups in connection with the extent of the use of fact finding activities have been summarized in Table LII. The figures given are the percentages of the various groups who checked the item as much used or emphasized by them in their supervisory work. In the case of teachers, the figure given is the percentage of teachers who say that the activity is much used in their school system.

CLASSROOM VISITATION

In connection with classroom visitation it is found that announced visits are listed as "much used" by few members of all groups until the special supervisors are reached when the percentages are large for all types. This is to be expected, since the majority of such supervisors indicate that they visit on schedule. Unannounced visits rank high for all except special supervisors. They are ranked by teachers among the first three items in the entire list. Among supervisors no other activity compares with the announced visits in the frequency with which it is listed as "much used." Supervision is, evidently, to a large extent, classroom visitation. Teachers report short visits emphasized in 35 percent of the cases, while only 15 percent of them indicate that long visits are much used. Elementary principals who do no teaching and general supervisors indicate that they use long visits most. This is also true of special supervisors. This can be accounted for by the fact that a long visit is defined in the inventory as the "whole or greater part of the period." Special supervisors come for the period, hence the emphasis on long visits. Among other supervisory officers, long and short visits seems to receive about equal emphasis.

TESTS

Informal tests seem to rank highest in terms of use. High-school principals and special supervisors report smallest use of tests. The small degree to which standardized testing materials have been developed in the high school and special subject fields probably accounts for this. Diagnostic tests seem in general as yet to be little used. Some have suggested that they would have expected tests to rank higher in terms of use.

TEACHER'S REPORTS

A priori, if one desires to secure facts concerning the teaching in a school system, three general ways are open. One can visit to observe, one can test the pupils to determine results being secured, or one can ask the teacher to tell what she does. The last method explains the third major fact-finding activitiy listed, that of teacher's reports. It seems from the foregoing that we are still in the stage where in general we "go and observe." It is likely, in view of the large percentages not checking the various types of teacher's reports, that the function of these as a supervisory activity is not well understood either by teachers or supervisors. When the forms were filled out by

teachers in meeting, it was frequently necessary to answer questions concerning the significance of teacher's reports in supervision. Reports of lesson plans was checked as much used with considerable frequency. It is likely that this connotes the old plan book. Of teachers in the elementary schools, 51 percent rank it as much used.

PRACTICE IN FACT FINDING COMPARED WITH JUDGMENTS OF VALUE

Teachers seem to be less inclined to rank visitation as of great value than are supervisors of all kinds (Table LIII). A slightly smaller percentage approve of long rather than short visits. Special supervisors express a preference for announced visits. This corresponds to their practice. Teachers and all general supervisors are in a fair degree of agreement concerning the value of tests. Special supervisors seem less enthusiastic about tests, only small percentages of them checking tests in the column headed "of great value." In general there is fairly close agreement between the judgments of teachers and general supervisors concerning the value of teacher's reports. Here again special supervisors check to a less extent, indicating that these reports have great value.

More than twice as large a proportion of non-teaching principals check visitation in the "great value" column as do teachers. Almost twice as large a percentage of high-school principals as high-school teachers believe visitation of great value. Elementary teachers and principals assign higher ranks to tests than do high-school teachers and principals.

Comparing Tables LII and LIII we find that classroom visitation is ranked as "of great value" by somewhat smaller percentages of supervisors than those who indicate that visitation is much used. If teacher's judgments of value are accepted, visitation is being used much more than its value would seem to justify. In the case of tests, present practice seems to be behind both teachers' and supervisors' judgment. Teachers, elementary school principals, and supervisors give high rank in value to diagnostic tests but these seem to be little used. Only slight differences are found between the percentages which indicate that teacher's reports are much used and those who rank them as having great value. It seems probable that this form of fact finding activity is as yet little understood and little used.

FACT PRESENTATION ACTIVITIES

From time to time the supervisor desires to place the results of fact-finding activities in the hands of teachers. The supervisor also

wishes to keep teachers in touch with the best that is being done in education. In this inventory, activities and devices designed to accomplish these purposes are called "fact presentation activities." The extent to which these various activities receive emphasis from several types of supervisors is shown in Table LIV. The judgments of the various groups concerning the value of the several devices are shown in Table LV.

TEACHERS' MEETINGS FOR ANNOUNCEMENTS

Evidently all groups feel that teachers' meetings for announcements are an uneconomical method of procedure, small percentages of all groups indicating that such meetings have great value. In terms of use such meetings likewise receive emphasis from only small percentages of supervisors. The bulletin procedure evidently has largely superseded teachers' meetings for this purpose.

BULLETINS

Among the various types of bulletin procedures, mimeographed materials, bulletin board, and graphs seem to be most emphasized. Printed bulletins are evidently not much used in systems of this size. Some larger systems make considerable use of this procedure. Probably in systems of this size the number of individuals to be reached is not large enough to justify the expense of printing such bulletins. Daily or weekly letters receive small emphasis. Graphs of test results receive the highest rank from specialists, but seem to be emphasized by relatively small proportions of supervisory officers. Special supervisors seem to make little use of any of these devices except mimeographed bulletins. The latter device is also the only one for which they express any degree of enthusiasm.

Generally speaking, the principal fact-presentation activity emphasized is the mimeographed bulletin. Teachers according to their expressions in this study accord a degree of approval to this device which seems to justify the extent of its use.

SUMMARY

Typical fact-finding practice in these school systems emphasizes visitation more than any other activity or device. The supervisors seem to have high regard for the value of this activity. Teachers, in so far as their judgments are available, do not share this regard, at least to the same degree. Whether the greater indifference of teachers toward visitation is due to factors inherent in the visitation procedure, or to ways in which visitation is carried on, of course, cannot be

TABLE LIV

PERCENTAGES OF SEVERAL KINDS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS INDICATING VARIOUS FACT-PRESENTATION ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES AS MUCH USED OR EMPHASIZED

Activity or device	Percent											
	Elementary Teachers	High-School Teachers	Superintendents	High-School Principals	Junior High Principals	Part Time Elementary Principals	Full Time Elementary Principals	General Supervisors	Art Supervisors	Music Supervisors	Phys. Ed. Supervisors	Penmanship Supervisors
A. Teachers meetings for announcements (do not confuse with III A)	26	10	.....	9	10	9	16	6	2	5	4	10
B. Bulletins												
1. Mimeographed	59	63	52	60	34	16	27	30	30	28	32	35
2. Printed	12	4	4	4	2	3	6	.....	8	3	4	10
3. Bulletin boards	19	43	23	40	26	32	40	9	6	3	8	20
4. Daily or weekly letters	11	16	9	16	8	10	8	6	6	3	1	5
5. Graphs of test results	23	11	20	12	10	14	24	36	.....	4	1	30
Others (name them)												
6.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

TABLE LV

COMPARING PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO INDICATE THAT CERTAIN FACT PRESENTATION ACTIVITIES ARE OF GREAT VALUE

Activity or device	Percent												
	Specialists	Elementary Teachers	High-School Teachers	Superintendents	High-School Principals	Junior High Principals	Part Time Elementary Principals	Full Time Elementary Principals	General Supervisors	Art Supervisors	Music Supervisors	Physical Ed. Supervisors	Penmanship Supervisors
A. Teachers meeting for announcements (do not confuse with III A)	4	17	9	5	11	10	9	6	3	2	8	6	10
B. Bulletins													
1. Mimeographed	46	59	59	51	64	34	23	31	45	22	26	36	35
2. Printed	30	38	17	14	14	8	11	15	12	16	7	16	10
3. Bulletin boards	34	43	42	25	39	22	32	42	21	16	5	14	20
4. Daily or weekly letters	30	21	15	14	18	14	13	11	12	10	5	10	5
5. Graphs of test results	70	45	29	40	26	28	34	42	48	8	16	12	30
Others (name them)													
6.													

determined. Test and measurements seem to meet with more or less approval from most teaching and supervisory groups. Probably teacher's reports are little understood either by teachers or supervisors. It seems likely that further study of teachers' judgments together with experimental use of the various fact-finding procedures would result in the development of fact-finding procedures which would be more acceptable to teachers, as well as effective.

CHAPTER VIII

Activities and Devices for Stimulating Growth and Improvement

The inventory of activities used in this study was organized upon the principle that an effective supervisory program is to be based upon a series of known facts in regard to the situation which it seeks to improve. Thus the first step is a survey or fact-finding procedure, a process of determining greatest needs. Having revealed the needs of the schools for instructional improvement, the supervisor's next problem is to so influence teachers that they want to improve. Activities used for this purpose are listed in this inventory as "Activities and Devices for Stimulating Growth and Improvement."

When the percentages in Table LVI are compared with those in Table LII, the striking fact is that the former are much smaller. Of all the devices in Table LVI only three are being emphasized by any considerable proportion of the supervisors. They are teachers' meetings, maintenance of a professional library, and conferences following visitation. The small proportion of supervisory officers who indicate that these activities are emphasized leads one to the suggestion that supervision is largely a fact-finding or inspectorial process. In general, it would seem that there are many activities designed to stimulate growth and improvement which are receiving little, if any, emphasis.

ACTIVITIES OF DIFFERENT SUPERVISORS

There seems to be some tendency for non-teaching elementary school principals and supervisors to carry on a richer program of activities for stimulating growth than other supervisors carry on. As might be expected special supervisors indicate that demonstration teaching is much used. Slight differences between the practices of various type of special supervisors are, of course, found, but it is not likely that they are significant. The chief characteristic of practice in connection with activities for stimulating growth seems to be that they receive emphasis at the hands of few supervisors.

EVALUATION OF THE ACTIVITIES

It is not believed that exact rank orders of these activities according to value are significant (Table LVII). It is not proposed to show

TABLE LVI

PERCENTAGES OF SEVERAL KINDS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS INDICATING VARIOUS ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES FOR STIMULATING GROWTH AND IMPROVEMENT AS MUCH USED OR EMPHASIZED

Activity or device	Group and Percent											
	Teachers		Superintendents	Principals				Supervisors				
	High School	Elementary		High School	Junior High	Part Time Elementary	Full Time Elementary	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Teachers' meetings												
1. General (including entire faculty)	15	11	24	42	52	32	42	3	10	13	18	15
2. Meetings of teachers of certain subjects or grades	22	30	52	29	32	35	36	15	28	24	22	35
3. Committees for special studies	8	13	40	22	12	9	17	24	8	9	8	20
B. Demonstration teaching												
1. Of proposed methods	3	12	15	.....	8	7	5	27	44	36	26	45
2. For training new teachers	4	7	18	2	6	12	10	30	46	32	20	45
3. Of ways of using materials	3	5	11	1	2	9	.....	21	52	30	24	25
C. Intervisitation												
1. In your own building	3	1	9	6	8	9	12	6	10	4	8	20
2. In other buildings	2	5	16	6	4	7	6	18	8	9	14	25
3. In other school systems	6	8	13	11	4	4	9	3	10	4	8	10
D. Exhibits												
1. Of work done by certain methods	5	16	14	7	2	11	12	9	20	9	8	15
2. Of work done in certain subjects	11	22	19	17	12	23	18	15	22	12	3	20
E. Lectures and reports												
1. By principal	5	7	13	1	4	7	9	.....	2	1	8	10
2. By supervisor	2	11	21	1	.....	6	7	9	12	9	6	20
3. By outsiders	4	4	13	2	4	2	4	3	2	.....	2	5
4. By teachers	2	4	13	6	10	.....	6	6	2	3	2	10

TABLE LVI—CONTINUED

PERCENTAGES OF SEVERAL KINDS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS INDICATING VARIOUS ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES FOR STIMULATING GROWTH AND IMPROVEMENT AS MUCH USED OR EMPHASIZED

Activity or device	Group and Percent												
	Teachers		Superintendents	Principals				Supervisors					
	High School	Elementary		High School	Junior High	Part Time Elemetary	Full Time Elementary	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
F. Encourage professional reading												
1. Require reading of teachers	6	9	20	11	8	10	11	15	6	3	2	5
2. Organize reading circles	1	1	14	7	.....	3	10	3	.....	4	.....	5
3. Ask teachers to report readings	1	1	15	10	.....	7	13	12	2	4	6	5
4. Maintain professional library in building	24	23	38	27	36	23	34	36	14	7	16	15
5. Maintain magazine shelf in building	26	27	22	27	26	26	35	33	24	8	12	5
G. Conferences with individual teachers												
1. Following visitation	12	20	42	44	42	44	52	69	40	35	40	35
2. For general stimulation	8	14	28	36	44	28	41	39	22	21	18	20
H. Experimentation												
1. In method	10	17	15	15	10	9	11	21	28	9	12	15
2. In organization	6	10	9	10	10	6	8	12	8	5	14	10
I. Assist teachers to evaluate their own work												
1. By rating scales	6	20	18	7	8	9	10	24	2	7	6	30
2. By type lessons	4	8	14	4	4	6	7	27	20	18	20	10
3. By lists of objectives	9	20	23	9	18	13	19	27	20	15	28	15

TABLE LVII

COMPARING JUDGMENTS OF VARIOUS GROUPS CONCERNING THE VALUE OF CERTAIN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES OF THOSE WHO STATE THAT THE ACTIVITY IS OF GREAT VALUE

Activity or device	Group and Percent												
		Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	Specialists	Elementary	High School	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time Teaching	Non-teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Teachers' meetings													
1. General (including entire faculty)	32	17	17	22	53	58	43	51	27	12	15	20	20
2. Meetings of teachers of certain subjects or grades	81	67	60	60	63	66	46	60	72	48	37	36	50
3. Committees for special studies	88	43	37	48	52	50	20	40	39	16	13	18	25
B. Demonstration teaching													
1. Of proposed methods	76	64	32	45	21	20	31	28	34	48	43	26	50
2. For training new teachers	80	45	32	46	29	30	35	38	54	50	42	24	65
3. Of ways of using materials	38	45	36	40	21	22	29	37	48	52	40	36	35
C. Intervisitation													
1. In your own building	44	16	20	29	30	34	26	31	15	24	29	20	30
2. In other buildings	46	34	20	39	25	22	32	35	39	32	36	22	25
3. In other school systems	56	64	53	35	39	32	31	44	24	36	38	34	40
D. Exhibits													
1. Of work done by certain methods	24	37	28	26	27	18	27	27	30	40	30	22	25
2. Of work done in certain subjects	18	38	21	42	30	18	38	39	33	34	28	22	35
E. Lectures and reports													
1. By principal	22	25	19	20	11	10	13	15	6	10	9	16	15
2. By supervisor	32	40	18	32	16	18	17	18	18	16	17	14	10
3. By outsiders	12	34	17	17	16	8	11	12	18	28	13	10	.....
4. By teachers	38	16	12	19	22	24	14	16	18	10	7	6	15

TABLE LVII—(Continued)

COMPARING JUDGMENTS OF VARIOUS GROUPS CONCERNING THE VALUE OF CERTAIN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES, EXPRESSED IN PERCENTAGES OF THOSE WHO STATE THAT THE ACTIVITY IS OF GREAT VALUE

Activity or device	Group and Percent												
		Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	Specialists	Elementary	High School	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time Teaching	Non-teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
F. Encourage professional reading													
1. Require reading of teachers	6	27	15	19	24	14	18	29	24	18	13	10	20
2. Organize reading circles	14	16	12	15	16	4	10	16	18	10	8	4	10
3. Ask teachers to report readings	26	9	5	18	26	2	18	27	21	10	11	4	5
4. Maintain professional library in building	68	65	55	41	59	44	45	43	51	36	29	36	20
5. Maintain magazine shelf in building	72	65	56	31	58	34	43	47	54	34	30	28	10
G. Conferences with individual teachers													
1. Following visitation	82	67	53	55	67	60	53	59	69	42	48	42	40
2. For general stimulation	52	50	45	44	54	54	44	53	57	30	33	28	20
H. Experimentation													
1. In method	86	37	40	34	48	32	26	33	39	36	22	28	20
2. In organization	84	33	29	24	35	24	21	29	36	20	17	26	10
I. Assist teachers to evaluate their own work													
1. By rating scales	26	32	25	23	25	30	12	24	39	4	11	14	25
2. By type lessons	52	40	23	20	19	14	18	29	36	20	29	28	15
3. By lists of objectives	48	41	30	26	30	36	24	36	42	35	36	30	20

that any one activity ranks above or below some other activity. Rather, it is desired to show the extent to which the members of the various groups show enthusiasm for the various activities.

TEACHERS' MEETINGS

General meetings of the whole faculty seem to rank high with all types of principals, but rank low with teachers, superintendents, and special supervisors. It seems likely that principals may be influenced by the general administrative utility of the meeting rather than by its value for stimulating professional growth. Meetings of certain grade or subject teachers seem to rank fairly high with all groups. Among specialists, committees for special studies rank higher than any other activity or device, being classed as of great value by 88 percent of the specialists in administration and supervision. Special supervisors show little enthusiasm for this activity. For instance, it has been shown elsewhere that special supervisors do not use coöperative methods in preparing courses of study, but prepare the course of study *for* the teachers. It is shown later that they have less regard than general supervisors for the value of teacher participation in the formulation of courses of study or supervisory plans. In fact, no group except the superintendents shows even half as high a percentage of checks in the "great value" column for this activity as do the specialists. If the specialists have correctly appraised the value of this activity, it seems evident that as yet it has not been "sold" to teachers and supervisors.

When the percentages ranking teachers' meetings of "great value" are compared with those indicating that teachers' meetings are "much used," considerable disparity is found. Although approved almost unanimously by specialists, yet committees for special studies are reported as "much used" by only 8 percent of high-school teachers and 13 percent of elementary school teachers. All other groups except superintendents report little use of this activity. While meetings of teachers of certain grades or subjects are reported as much used by larger percentages than committees for special studies, their extent of emphasis does not approach the judgments of value assigned to them.

In connection with teachers' meetings it would seem that practice is in accord with neither the judgment of teachers nor of specialists. At the same time, many groups do not follow in their practice the judgments which they express. All types of principals emphasize general teachers' meetings more than meetings of subject or grade

groups, but, according to their expressed judgments, the latter type of meeting ranks higher. It is, perhaps, to be expected that this would be true. Practice, probably, lags behind theoretical development. The supervisor may be gradually seeking to make his practice conform to his best judgment in the light of the facts that are known.

DEMONSTRATION TEACHING

This activity is ranked high in value by specialists and teachers. Special supervisors concur in this judgment as might be expected. Principals, in general, are much less inclined to show enthusiasm for this activity. The same is true for high-school teachers. Table LVI shows demonstration teaching to be one of the least used activities except in special subjects. Elementary school supervisors use demonstration teaching to some extent, but, evidently, it receives practically no emphasis in secondary schools. Special teachers may use it too much or, at least, too much in proportion to other activities. It is possible also, of course, that it may be used in an ineffective manner. It may be said that in practice, demonstration teaching is not emphasized by general supervisors to the extent which teachers' and specialists' judgment of its value would seem to justify.

INTERVISITATION

Moderate enthusiasm for intervisitation is shown by all groups. In most cases its rated value is proportional to the remoteness of the place visited. At least this is true in the case of specialists, teachers, superintendents, and special supervisors. Teachers rank visitation of other school systems high. Perhaps the diversion and travel incident to such visitation affects their judgments. In practice this device receives very little emphasis, percentages being low in practically all cases.

EXHIBITS

Only moderate approval is given by all groups to exhibits. Teachers and special supervisors give this device the highest rank. No doubt the availability of the exhibit in special fields, such as art, music, and physical education accounts at least in part for the situation. In practice this device receives a moderate emphasis somewhat proportional to the value which is assigned to it.

LECTURES AND REPORTS

In this connection teachers and specialists give highest rank to the activity. Teachers give high rank to lectures by the supervisors;

specialists give high rank to reports or lectures by teachers. Perhaps the reticence concerning appearance before a public group influences the teachers in placing teacher-reports low. In practice this type of activity receives almost no emphasis.

ENCOURAGING PROFESSIONAL READING

The value assigned to efforts at encouraging professional reading seem to vary greatly with the procedure followed. Little approval seems forthcoming from all groups for required reading, for reading circles, or for requiring reports of reading done. It seems likely that objection to any form of compulsion enters in here since maintenance of a professional library is checked as having great value by large percentages of most groups but particularly by groups of specialists and elementary grade teachers. Special supervisors seem less enthusiastic about a professional library or magazine shelf. It may be that little has been done to build up libraries in the special subject. Probably also, the smaller initiative given teachers by special supervisors has some effect on the situation. The special supervisor, as has been pointed out previously, is primarily concerned with "showing the teacher how." This probably means that if the teacher has any questions about the teaching of a special subject, she asks the supervisor. In this case a library may seem superfluous except for the supervisor. Special supervisors also indicate that they give only slight emphasis to the use of a professional library. Other supervisory groups including teachers indicate that moderate emphasis is being placed upon this device. As in the case of most activities and devices for stimulating growth, practice is considerably behind judgment of value. It is noteworthy, however, that those procedures for encouraging professional reading which receive least approval are also the ones which receive least emphasis in practice.

CONFERENCES WITH INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

This activity receives high rank from practically all groups. While nearly all supervisory groups indicate considerable use of conferences, they do not receive emphasis in proportion to the value which is assigned to them. Particularly is this true in terms of the reports of teachers. The teachers in these ten Minnesota school systems rank this activity very high in value, but less than 20 percent of them report that it is much emphasized. One wonders to what extent the supervisor may be misled concerning the emphasis which he gives

this activity. He may make a remark or two to a teacher following visitation and feel that it is a "conference." The teacher, however, may not feel that this is a really helpful conference, hence the disparity in reports. There may be, of course, great differences in school systems. There are no reasons for believing, however, that conferences with teachers are less used in these ten Minnesota school systems than in the remainder of the schools included. Much has been said about the importance of the conference in the literature on supervision. The data here presented would seem to indicate that practice in connection with the conference is in need of critical examination both as to the extent of its use and as to its effective administration.

EXPERIMENTATION

Given a decidedly high rank by specialists, this activity elicits only moderate enthusiasm from all other groups including teachers. No doubt at least in part the greater interest in research on the part of the specialist accounts for his enthusiasm for this activity. It may be, of course, that the real role of experimentation as a supervisory device has not been sensed by the other groups. To many supervisors and teachers, experimentation may be thought of purely in terms of its scientific aspects. Does the teacher who engages in experimentation take on new interest in her teaching and become stimulated to greater professional growth? Specialists evidently think so. This may be one outcome of experimentation which other groups have not realized to an equal extent with specialists. On the other hand, innate conservatism, fear of experimentation and trial and error in general, may be an important factor in the attitude of the other groups. In any case if the specialists have correctly appraised the value of experimentation, it seems likely that, as yet, teachers and supervisors have not been convinced of its value nor have they given any considerable degree of emphasis to it in practice.

ASSISTING TEACHERS IN SELF EVALUATION

In a general way specialists and elementary school teachers assign higher rank to this form of activity than do other groups. In practice, as is shown by reports in Table LVI, the activity receives no great degree of emphasis. Relatively, self evaluation receives only moderate approval even from specialists. Some specialists seem to feel we have only begun to sense the possibilities of this device and hold out great encouragement as to its possibilities. No doubt many of

these activities have possibilities which have not been realized, often because satisfactory techniques in connection with their use have not been perfected. If more effective aids to self evaluation on the part of the teacher are perfected, the use of this device and the desirability of such use may be greatly increased.

SUMMARY

In general, it may be said that the activities and devices for stimulating growth and improvement receive less emphasis at the hands of supervisors than do the fact-finding activities. Some may interpret this to mean that supervision is still primarily inspectorial, or that the rating function is uppermost in the supervisor's practice. Visitation, for instance, receives much emphasis, but conferences following visitation are much less used. In as far as the teachers' replies in this study can be considered, one may judge that much is done to find out what teachers are doing or how they are teaching, but less is done to help teachers teach better. Most of the activities for stimulating growth are checked as "much emphasized" by relatively small percentages of the groups included. Also, in a general way, these same activities are thought to be of great value by large percentages of the various groups. The opinions of the various groups included concerning the value of the several activities would seem to justify a wider use of many devices.

ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION

Following the plan selected for the organization of the inventory of supervisory activities, the first step in supervision is fact-finding and fact presentation. The supervisor then faces the problem of stimulating teachers to a point where they desire to improve. This accomplished, the supervisor must provide the facilities for actually training teachers toward improved teaching.

OFFICE HOURS WHEN TEACHERS GET HELP

It seems evident from Table LIX that both teachers and specialists have high regard for this activity. Superintendents check it as "of great value" in a smaller percentage of cases. Perhaps the press of other duties makes this procedure a time-consuming one for the superintendent. Special supervisors likewise show little enthusiasm for it. Probably their frequent and periodic visits give them the opportunity

they need to confer with teachers. High-school principals and non-teaching elementary principals accord it great value in about 50 percent of the cases. Table LVIII shows that maintaining office hours when teachers can get help is an activity receiving only a moderate degree of emphasis. Valentine's study shows that this activity ranked first according to the judgment of the teachers consulted.[1]

COÖPERATIVE STUDIES BY TEACHERS

This group of activities is considered of great value by the great majority of specialists, but is, in general, not nearly so well approved by the rank and file of supervisory officers. Among elementary grade teachers nearly half checked coöperative studies as of "great value," while high-school teachers assign it a lower rank. When Table LVIII is examined it is found also that this group of activities receives small emphasis at the hands of most supervisors. It is noted also that special supervisors make very little use of this type of activity. The reason is probably that special supervisors commonly prepare the course of study or decide what course to use without prefacing such choice with study by groups of teachers.

Teacher participation in the preparation of the curriculum, in selection of texts and equipment, and in the development of methods to be used has received recently much emphasis in supervision literature. Such participation has been urged as a means of democratizing supervision, and securing for supervisory effort a more welcome attitude on the part of the teachers supervised. The data here presented indicate that such activities are well received by teachers. Teachers have not as yet, however, developed for coöperative studies the enthusiasm which is shown for them by specialists in administration and supervision. The moderate approval which supervisors in general give to this group of activities as well as the limited extent to which they give emphasis to them in practice indicate that teacher participation in administration and supervision is still in its early beginnings.

INDIVIDUAL STUDIES BY TEACHERS

What was said in the last section concerning coöperative studies applies with equal force to individual studies by teachers, although in practice this type of activity seems to receive even less emphasis. Both teachers and specialists attach highest value to studies of the teacher's own specific problems. This latter activity received one of the highest ranks accorded by teachers. One discerns throughout the reactions of

[1] Valentine, P. F. "A Job Analysis of Elementary Supervision," *The Journal of Educational Method.* v: 279-282.

TABLE LVIII

PERCENTAGES OF SEVERAL KINDS OF SUPERVISORY OFFICERS INDICATING VARIOUS ACTIVITIES FOR THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION AS BEING MUCH USED OR EMPHASIZED

Activity or device	Group and Percent											
	Teachers		Superintendents	Principals				Supervisors				
	Elementary	High School		High School	Junior High	Part Time Elementary	Full Time Elementary	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Maintain office hours when teachers can get help	21	25	34	38	26	26	39	33	20	12	14	10
B. Coöperative studies by groups of teachers												
1. Course of study making	11	12	28	27	18	10	21	27	16	5	4	25
2. Development of methods	9	8	16	17	4	6	15	15	12	11	14	25
3. Selection of materials of instruction	.....	.....	18	19	10	5	11	15	6	5	10	20
a. Texts	12	10	25	21	16	7	15	22	2	4	4	20
b. Equipment	9	8	22	19	14	10	16	15	8	5	6	10
c. Drill materials	10	8	23	18	8	11	19	21	6	4	4	15
4. Adapting instruction to individual needs	25	15	27	37	30	30	31	30	18	15	16	25
C. Individual studies by teachers												
1. Investigation of special problems *for groups*	33	11	7	11	10	4	15	21	12	9	8	10
2. Study of teacher's own specific problems	27	19	16	24	24	21	29	36	14	21	16	30
D. Institutional training												
1. University or college courses	15	28	44	34	32	22	22	21	10	11	12	5
2. Extension courses	16	13	34	21	22	25	27	18	6	15	14	.....
3. Summer school courses	26	30	47	42	46	34	33	42	4	17	20	15
4. Saturday morning or after school classes	10	7	15	7	14	6	13	12	.....	15	6	10

TABLE LIX

COMPARING THE PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO INDICATE THAT CERTAIN ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND THE IMPROVEMENT OF INSTRUCTION ARE OF GREAT VALUE

Activity or device	Group and Percent												
		Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	Specialists	Elementary	High School	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time Teaching	Non-Teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. Maintain office hours when teachers can get help	68	55	48	31	48	30	29	45	51	40	27	14	10
B. Coöperative studies by groups of teachers													
1. Course of study making	80	31	32	.....	43	38	17	28	39	22	12	14	20
2. Development of methods	75	40	31	38	36	24	21	28	39	20	16	22	30
3. Selection of materials of instruction	58	.....	.....	22	29	24	11	24	24	14	8	6	15
a. Texts	64	45	32	35	35	30	16	26	30	10	8	8	15
b. Equipment	60	45	32	32	31	26	18	26	33	16	13	12	10
c. Drill materials	54	41	29	33	34	26	23	28	36	12	13	10	25
4. Adapting instruction to individual needs	76	48	41	54	49	50	45	51	54	32	24	30	30
C. Individual studies by teachers													
1. Investigation of special problems *for groups*	64	48	38	28	40	44	21	32	48	26	20	24	25
2. Study of teacher's own specific problems	82	65	52	45	51	48	39	51	51	30	29	36	45
D. Institutional training													
1. University or college courses	74	55	54	47	49	48	41	41	48	24	27	22	20
2. Extension courses	36	48	32	33	29	36	45	43	45	22	20	22	15
3. Summer school courses	76	60	50	46	56	50	49	53	51	32	28	30	30
4. Saturday morning or after school classes	30	14	9	18	20	24	14	24	30	12	21	10	5

teachers an apparently greater interest in the activities which touch their personal teaching problems and less interest in those which are largely of group interest. Probably most supervisors have yet to develop means whereby individual studies may best be promoted. In general, probably, there are lacking the means whereby the results of such studies may be most effectively utilized.

INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING

Under this category, university and college courses, together with summer school work, rank highest in adjudged value. Somewhat less value is seen in extension courses, and Saturday morning courses are particularly unpopular with teachers, large percentages of them checking the device as "Undesirable should not be used." In general, special supervisors show less enthusiasm for the various types of institutional training than do general supervisors. Teachers in the elementary schools give highest rank to summer schools. All types of general supervisors give fairly high ranks to items in this group. In practice, emphasis is given these activities by relatively small percentages of supervisors.

THE EVALUATION OF SUPERVISION

The efforts so far made in this direction have been largely of two kinds. The first has been an attempt to measure the value of supervision by determining improvement in pupils as a result of supervisory effort.[2] The second has been an effort to evaluate supervision in terms of changes taking place in the teacher.[3] The lack of measuring devices in connection with the latter procedure has delayed its development. With the improvement of rating devices, no doubt more attention will be given to this type of evaluation.

Had it been possible to give in the inventory actual procedures in this connection rather than basic principles, it is to be doubted that the percentages in terms of use would have been as large. No doubt many supervisors follow one or the other, or both of the principles listed without using any very definite techniques for exploiting them. As given in Table LXI, the data are probably a measure of subscrip-

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[2] Courtis, S. A. "Measuring the Effects of Supervision in Georgraphy," *School and Society*, July, 1919.

[3] Brueckner, L. J. and Cutright, Prudence. "A Technique for Measuring the Efficiency of Supervision," *Journal of Educational Research*. xvi, (December, 1927), p. 323.

tion to certain basic principles rather than judgments concerning the value of specific procedures. The smaller percentages found in Table LX may be a reflection of the absence of specific procedures for utilizing the principles in practice.

It is significant that the specialists rank highest the principle of evaluating supervision in terms of improvement in pupils. Measurement with standard tests is considered of great value for this purpose by 66 percent of the specialists. It may be that specialists are moved to react in this manner by the imperfect devices available in connection with the principle of evaluating supervision in terms of changes in the teacher. In any case, the matter of evaluating supervision is probably greatly in need of specific techniques. It is readily apparent that greater progress has been made in the direction of measuring pupil achievement than has been made in the measurement of teaching ability or procedure. This fact makes the principle of evaluating supervision in terms of the change in pupils more available. Before the two principles can be evaluated fairly, techniques, more definite than subjective observation, must be made available.

GENERAL STATUS OF SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

The general situation revealed by the facts brought out in the last two chapters is that supervision is still primarily classroom visitation, a few tests, occasional mimeographed bulletins, and teachers' meetings. Trabue's study shows a similar condition. Summary of his data is shown in Table XLIX (Chapter VII). Commenting on his data Trabue says:

> "It is certainly illuminating to discover that only 13 principals out of the entire list do anything at all about a lesson that has been observed. It is also surprising to find only five principals giving demonstration lessons and only one of the five making as much as ten minutes preparation for the lesson. Not a single principal mentioned helping a teacher to discover her peculiar classroom problems. The textbooks suggest that a principal should encourage experimental teaching, suggest helpful readings and encourage travel, summer school study, correspondence study, and the like, but, so far as their records show none of these principals did any of these things."[4]

Examination of Trabue's material as shown in Table XLIX, leaves one with the same feeling as is derived from the data in the present study. These data show that comparatively barren programs of supervision are being carried on by elementary principals. The same situation in regard to high-school supervision is shown by

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[4] Trabue, M. R. "The Activities in Which Principals Are Engaged," *First Yearbook of the Conference on Educational Method*, p. 130.

TABLE LX

COMPARING PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO INDICATE THAT CERTAIN PROCEDURES FOR EVALUATING THE RESULTS OF SUPERVISION ARE MUCH USED

Procedure	Group and Percent												
	Teachers		Superintendents	Principals				Supervisors					
	Elementary	High School		High School	Junior High	Part Time Teaching	Non-Teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. By changes in pupils													
1. As measured by standard tests	33	13	33	18	22	18	32	30	4	8	28	.....
2. Observed improvement in pupil attitudes	31	18	38	41	28	31	46	48	36	26	48	.....
B. By changes in the teacher or her teaching													
1. Teacher's attitude toward supervision	26	10	33	22	18	27	37	60	32	24	34	.....
2. Observed changes in teacher's methods	23	8	42	26	24	24	38	37	34	29	34	.....

TABLE LXI

COMPARING PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO INDICATE THAT CERTAIN PROCEDURES FOR EVALUATING THE RESULTS OF SUPERVISION ARE OF GREAT VALUE

Procedure	Groups and Percent												
		Teachers			Principals				Supervisors				
	Specialists	Elementary	High School	Superintendents	High School	Junior High	Part Time Teaching	Non-Teaching	General	Art	Music	Physical Ed.	Penmanship
A. By changes in pupils													
1. As measured by standard tests	66	42	32	37	38	38	35	56	54	12	13	30	35
2. Observed improvement in pupil attitudes	58	54	41	40	59	40	41	58	57	44	39	36	40
B. By changes in the teacher or her teaching													
1. Teacher's attitude toward supervision	48	46	34	35	35	34	38	45	63	38	36	38	45
2. Observed changes in teacher's methods	36	45	29	43	47	42	37	56	63	44	29	42	50

Hughes.[5] Of 451 teachers included in his study more than 68 percent received no suggestions from any of the three supervisory officers in their school system. As the author points out many of the suggestions received by the 32 percent were simply remarks. Probably more emphasis in practice is given to fact-finding activities than is given to activities designed to stimulate growth and improvement of teachers and teaching. In general, it seems that specialists and teachers display more enthusiasm for the activities designed to stimulate growth and train teachers than do supervisors. Also it seems that the more recently developed supervisory activities, such as experimentation, demonstration teaching, coöperative studies, and self-evaluation receive very small emphasis. In general, also, supervisors have not as yet been convinced that these activities are of great value.

TABLE LXII

COMPARING THE JUDGMENTS OF 377 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CONCERNING THE VALUE AND EXTENT OF USE OF CERTAIN SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES

Activity or Device	Of great value		Much used	
	Percent	Rank order	Percent	Rank order
1. Fact-finding				
1. Visitation	32	15	58	2
2. Tests	55	9	49	3
3. Teacher's reports	51	10	32	5
2. Fact presentation				
1. Teachers' meetings	17	16	25	8
2. Bulletins	59	7	59	1
3. Stimulating growth				
1. Teachers' meetings	71	1	37	4
2. Demonstration teaching	64	5	12	15
3. Professional library	65	4	23	10
4. Conferences	67	2	19	13
5. Experimentation	37	14	17	14
6. Self-evaluation	40	13	20	12
7. Intervisitation	16	17	8	17
8. Lectures	41	12	11	16
4. Training Teachers and Improving Instruction				
1. Maintain office hours	56	8	21	11
2. Coöperative studies	48	11	24	9
3. Individual studies	66	3	27	6
4. University courses	60	6	26	7

[5] Hughes, J. M. "A Study in High School Supervision," *The School Review*. xxxiv, (February, 1926), p. 112.

TABLE LXIII

COMPARING JUDGMENTS OF 377 ELEMENTARY SCHOOL TEACHERS CONCERNING THE VALUE AND EXTENT OF USE OF 65 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES AND DEVICES

Activity or Device	Percent	
	Much used	Of great value
I. Fact-finding		
A. Classroom visitation		
1. Announced visits	7	16
2. Unannounced visits	58	32
3. Scheduled visits	15	27
4. Unscheduled visits	38	22
5. Long visits	15	26
6. Short visits	35	31
B. Tests and measurements		
1. Standard achievement tests	37	52
2. Intelligence tests	37	55
3. Informal tests	49	55
4. Diagnostic tests	22	46
C. Teachers' reports		
1. Time allotment reports	29	24
2. Reporting methods used	14	20
3. Reports of objectives of	21	28
4. Materials used (lessons)	19	21
5. Reports of lesson plans	51	32
II. Fact-presentation		
A. Teachers' meetings for announcements	26	17
B. Bulletins		
1. Mimeographed	59	59
2. Printed	12	38
3. Bulletin boards	19	42
4. Daily or weekly letters	11	21
5. Graphs of test results	23	45
III. Activities and devices for stimulating growth and improvement		
A. Teachers' meetings		
1. General (entire faculty)	11	17
2. Meetings of teachers of certain subjects	28	67
3. Meetings of teachers of certain grades	37	71
4. Committees for special studies	13	43
B. Demonstration teaching		
1. Of proposed methods	12	64
2. For training new teachers	7	45
3. Ways of using materials	5	45
C. Intervisitation		
1. In your own building	1	16
2. In other buildings	5	34
3. In other school systems	8	64
D. Exhibits		
1. Work done by certain methods	16	37
2. Work done in certain subjects	22	38

TABLE LXIII—(Continued)

E. Lectures and reports		
1. By principals	7	25
2. By supervisor	11	40
3. By outsiders	11	34
4. By teachers	4	16
F. Encourage professional reading		
1. Require reading of teachers	9	27
2. Organize reading circles	1	16
3. Ask teachers to report readings	1	9
4. Maintain professional library	23	65
5. Maintain magazine shelf	27	65
G. Conferences with teachers		
1. Following visitation	20	67
2. For general stimulation	14	50
H. Experimentation		
1. In method	17	37
2. In organization	10	33
I. Assist teachers to evaluate their own work		
1. By rating scales	20	32
2. By type lessons	8	40
3. By lists of objectives	20	41
IV. Activities and devices in the training of teachers and improvement of instruction		
A. Maintain office hours when teachers can get help	21	55
B. Coöperative studies by groups of teachers		
1. Course of study making	11	31
2. Development of methods	9	40
3. Selection of materials of instruction		
a. Texts	12	45
b. Equipment	9	45
c. Drill materials	10	41
4. Adapting instruction to individual needs	25	48
C. Individual studies by teachers		
1. Investigation of special problems *for groups*	33	48
2. Study of teacher's own specific problems	27	65
D. Institutional training		
1. University or college courses	15	55
2. Extension courses	16	48
3. Summer school courses	26	60
4. Saturday morning or after school classes	10	14
V. Procedures for evaluating the results of supervision		
A. By improvements in pupils		
1. As measured by standard tests	33	42
2. Observed improvement in pupil attitudes	31	54
B. By changes in the teacher or her teaching		
1. Teacher's attitude toward supervision	26	46
2. Observed changes in teacher's methods	23	45

Not only are the supervisory programs carried on more or less lacking in richness but whatever supervisory activity there is does not seem to correspond to the judgments of teachers as to the value of the activities. Table LXII lists 17 major activities taken from the inventory. Following each item will be found the percentages of teachers checking the items as "much used" and "of great value" with the rank orders given. The correlation between practice and judgment of value is .21 (Spearman Rank Difference) (P. E. .105). The suggestion is that we are not always doing in supervision what teachers would have us do. The correlation has no special significance. The supervisor will be interested in the situation with reference to specific activities or devices. Do teachers approve of experimentation? Are we emphasizing intervisitation? Table LXIII compares the judgments of teachers covering practice and value for all activities.

THE REACTIONS OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Apparently special supervisors experienced considerable difficulty in checking the list of activities. In many cases they would leave the entire form blank. In others they would check one or more devices

TABLE LXIV

COMPARING THE AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SUPERVISORY GROUPS WHO CHECKED CERTAIN COLUMNS FOLLOWING ITEMS IN INVENTORY

Supervisory Officer	Percent			
	Not checked*		Much emphasized	Not used
	A	B		
Superintendent	30	30	23	9
High-school principal	26	31	19	14
Junior high-school principal	31	35	17	8
Full Time Supervising Elementary principals	27	32	22	10
Part Time Supervising Elementary principals	37	43	18	11
General Supervisors	33	39	24	9
Art supervisors	57	59	14	11
Music supervisors	63	64	12	12
Physical Education supervisors	54	58	12	8
Penmanship	56	57	15	10
Averages—General supervisors	30.6	35	20.5	10.1
Special supervisors	57.5	59.5	13.3	10.3

*A—Practice. B—Judgment.

but leave the rest blank. In fact, failure to check many items was an outstanding characteristic of the returns from all groups of special supervisors. In order to get a rough measure of group differences in this respect, the percentage of supervisors failing to check each item was determined. These then were added for each group and divided by the number of items in the inventory. Table LXIV compares these averages for all the various types of supervisors included. While on an average 30.6 percent of all general supervisors failed to check the items in the inventory, 57.5 percent, or nearly twice as many, special supervisors failed to check the items.

A few special supervisors marked their forms "does not apply to my work." When school systems were visited and supervisors interviewed, such supervisors frequently expressed difficulty in filling out the forms. In case the activities in the list are not applicable to special subject supervision it would be expected that the special supervisor would indicate what activities are used and are valuable for her work in the blank spaces which were provided for this purpose. Fewer items, however, were added to the list by special supervisors than by any other group. Probably the reason for this is that most of our supervisory techniques have been developed in and around our "regular" school subjects. Very little of the literature on supervision is concerned with the supervision of music, art, or physical education. Of a total of 117 articles on supervision listed in *The Reader's Guide* from January, 1915, to January, 1928, only 17 dealt with special subjects and these largely in terms of instructional aspects of such subjects. No doubt much of what has been developed in the supervision of regular subjects would be applicable in special subject supervision. However, there seems to be strong suggestion in the above data that the application has not as yet been effectively made. If the specialists in supervision have anything to offer the special subject supervisor she, evidently, either is unfamiliar with it, or if familiar with it does not have high regard for its value.

SUMMARY

There is, however, in the results in the inventory much that is encouraging to supervision. There was among teachers no great tendency to condemn any of the supervisory activities. The average percentages of 377 elementary school teachers who checked activities or devices as "undesirable, should not be used" is only 3.7 for all items. Only 5 items are checked as "undesirable" by more than 10 percent of the teachers. At the same time, the number of activities and de-

vices which teachers rank as having "great value" is large. More than half (36) are ranked as of "great value" by 40 percent or more of the teachers. It seems, therefore, that there is opportunity for the supervisor to exploit many activities. Acceptable techniques are available. They must and can no doubt be perfected in use.

The judgments of teachers, supervisors, and specialists concerning the value of the various supervisory devices can be summarized by describing the principles and procedures followed by three hypothetical supervisors.

Supervisor "A" desired to improve the work which the schools under her supervision were doing in arithmetic. She called a teachers' meeting and announced: "I am wondering what kind of work *you teachers* are doing in arithmetic. During the coming week I shall visit as many of your classes in arithmetic as I can in an attempt to find out." It seems quite probable that teachers during this week would feel that they themselves were being "inspected," "rated," or "on trial." During this week they would probably be more concerned about themselves than about the pupils and their progress. There is suggestion in the replies of teachers reported in this study that they do not approve of the policy followed by supervisor "A."

Supervisor "B" likewise wished to improve work in arithmetic. In a teachers' meeting she raised the question: "I wonder what kind of work *our children* are doing in arithmetic? How can *we* find out?" She encourages and gets suggestions as to procedure. The group is organized for coöperative study of the problem. During the "week" the teachers are busy studying their pupils. In the process they have probably forgotten about themselves. They are not being "rated," "inspected," or placed on "trial." They are engaged in a coöperative enterprise in which supervisor "B" is a sympathetic leader.

A majority of the teachers (judged by their replies in the present study) would welcome the type of supervision provided by supervisor "B." In this preference they are supported by specialists in educational administration and supervision.

Present practice in supervision as provided by principals, general supervisors, and superintendents seems to resemble more that of supervisor "A." To summarize the practice of special supervisors, a third hypothetical supervisor must be described. Supervisor "C" announces at the beginning of the year that the————————method will be followed in————————. She informs the teachers that she will visit them twice a month for half an hour during which time she will

show them exactly what to do during her absence in the use of the ————————method in————————.

Which of these three hypothetical supervisors is following the most effective procedure? The question probably cannot be answered. At present, however, the typical school system employs supervisors following at least two of these procedures and in some cases all of them. Is this a desirable situation? Can their efforts be made to contribute to the same educational outcomes?

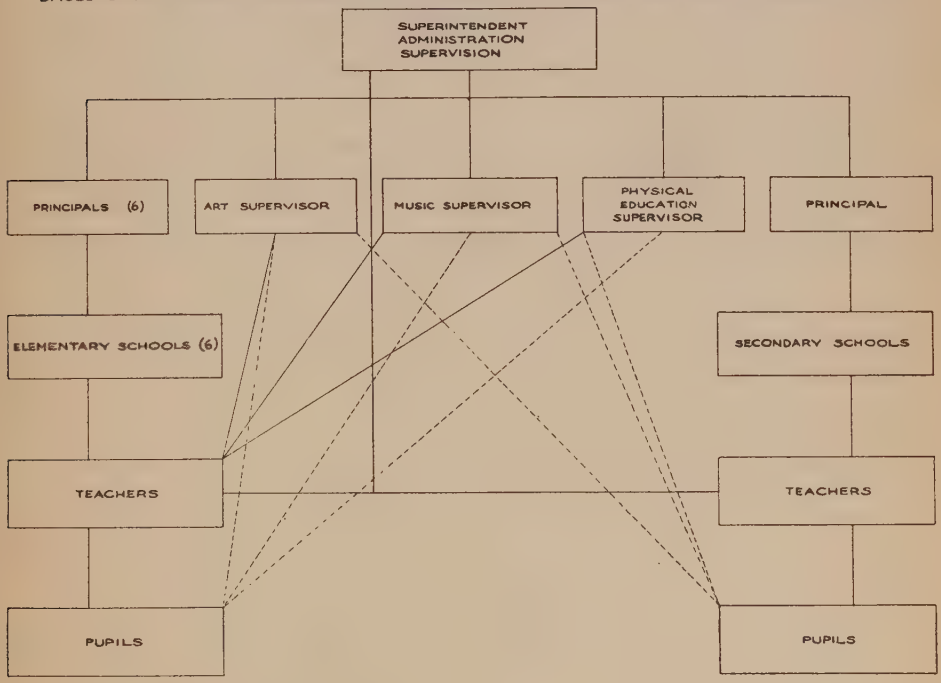
CHAPTER IX

Some Plans of Supervisory Organization

A typical existing supervisory organization in cities of the size included in this study is shown graphically in Diagram 1. The superintendent of schools is assisted in this organization by two rather distinct groups of supervisory officers, the principals whose efforts are confined largely to regular subjects, and the special supervisors who are in charge of the so-called special subjects. Between these two groups of supervisors marked differences in viewpoint and practice have been shown to exist. These differences extend also to the training and experience of these supervisors. While no one can

DIAGRAM ONE

A TYPICAL EXISTING SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION IN CITIES OF 10,000 TO 20,000 BASED UPON DIVIDED RESPONSIBILITY OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR SPECIAL SUBJECTS.



say on the basis of evidence which group is following the best procedures, still there are a number of questions which may well be raised in connection with present practice in supervisory organization.

PROBLEMS IN SPECIAL SUPERVISION

Certainly in systems of the size included in this study, the plan of employing several special supervisors adds greatly to the complexity of the problem of supervisory organization and administration. For the teacher there is the problem of meeting the demands of several supervisors whose plans and procedures may be very poorly coördinated. To the general supervisor there is the problem of securing the attention of teachers, already more or less completely occupied in meeting the demands of all the specialists. Principals face the task of coördinating with their own supervisory efforts the work of the specialists. When, as is the practice in these systems, such specialists are in no way responsible to principals or general supervisors but responsible directly to the superintendent, this problem becomes even more serious. The principal or general supervisor finds that his teachers are taking orders, engaging in activities, and following procedures of one kind or another over which he has little or no control. The superintendent faces the problem of properly coördinating the efforts of a number of supervisors. His problem seems to be somewhat aggravated by the specialized nature of the content of these subjects. Feeling somewhat unfamiliar with the supervisor's field, the superintendent allows her a degree of freedom which may prove harmful to proper coördination. In turn, the special supervisor may be very arbitrary in imposing upon teachers a method or procedure of her own choosing, which may be or may not be in harmony with the other efforts of the teacher or the efforts of other supervisors.

NECESSITY FOR SPECIAL SUPERVISION

In view of the present training of classroom teachers in the special subjects does the necessity still exist for detailed supervision? If detailed supervision by highly specialized staff members is necessary in art, music, and physical education, why is it not equally necessary in reading, arithmetic, and history? Those who believe in departmentized teaching in the elementary school probably would advocate specialized training for teachers of all subjects. The ultimate result would be either special supervisors for all subjects or completely departmentized instruction.

While proponents no doubt can be found for a completely departmentized school organization, certainly there is not complete agree-

ment to this effect. It seems probable that for some time to come the elementary schools will be organized under varying plans. This being the case, there appears the problem of developing the type of supervisory organization best adapted to each plan of school organization.

PROCEDURE IN SPECIAL SUPERVISION

Even if the necessity for the special supervisor is established (for some situations) her present typical procedure may probably be questioned. Assuming that teachers are so untrained in these special subjects that detailed demonstration procedures must be followed, that prepared methods and courses of study must be provided, will a given group of teachers *always* continue to be so untrained? Can no increments be expected in skill and ability on the part of the teachers supervised? Does it not seem reasonable that constant supervision provided year after year should result at least in enough growth on the part of teachers to justify modification of procedure to the extent of placing more responsibility on the classroom teacher? If such growth does not take place is not this very fact an indictment of the procedure followed?

At the same time it seems hardly possible that *all* teachers in a given school system are equally untrained and unskilled in the teaching of these special subjects. The vast majority of supervisors indicate that they give the same amount of time to all teachers, only a small percent indicating that they vary their work with different teachers. Certainly it would seem reasonable to suppose that a few teachers in the school system would be competent to take more initiative in directing their own work. Such teachers would be able to participate in the preparation or adaptation of the curriculum to local needs. However, one can scarcely find any evidence to the effect that teacher participation in special supervision is employed to any extent.

It is difficult to understand why the special subjects should require a supervisory procedure different from that followed in regular subjects. A group of music supervisors in a class in supervision in the College of Education of the University of Minnesota insisted that "music must be taught by compulsion methods."[1] Certainly it seems an anomoly that in the supervision of subjects in which one of

[1] The word *compulsion* here refers to the types of teachers as described by Courtis. Brueckner, L. J. "Scales for Rating Teaching Skill," *Educational Bulletin*, College of Education, University of Minnesota. XXX, No. 12.

the frequently stated objectives is creative expression, there should exist the least opportunity for such expression as far as originality and initiative in teaching is concerned. That this condition must always obtain seems hardly reasonable. It appears rather that present supervisory procedures in the special subjects were developed at a certain stage in the training of classroom teachers when such methods were thought necessary. These methods have tended to remain in practice even though conditions have changed.

THE ACTIVITIES OF SPECIAL SUPERVISORS

Another very disturbing situation is the special supervisor's apparent lack of orientation in the whole field of supervisory techniques. If the various devices employed by general supervisors and principals have any value, that value is evidently not being utilized in special subject supervision. If such existing techniques are not applicable in these fields, the reasons for such lack of applicability should be known and work begun upon the development of procedures which are adapted to the needs of the subjects. Judged by the reactions of special supervisors in this study, very little of that which has been developed in the literature on supervision and in best supervisory practice in the general fields has found its way into the special supervisor's thinking or practice.

Were detailed information available concerning the typical special supervisor's training, it may be that the nature of this training would in part, at least, account for her lack of familiarity with the supervisory activities and devices in the inventory. The fact also that many of the supervisory techniques have been developed in connection with the general rather than the special subjects may be a factor in the situation. Special supervisors do not indicate that they read general education periodicals. To whatever extent such periodicals are describing supervisory techniques, these techniques are evidently not reaching the special supervisor.

GENERAL SUPERVISION

Supervision of regular subjects, such as reading and arithmetic, is the joint responsibility of the superintendent and principals in these cities. This is a marked contrast to special supervision from which the superintendent seems to have removed himself completely as an active participant. The reasons for this condition are probably several. In the first place, nearly one-half of all the principals in

these cities teach full time. In the absence of a general grade supervisor the responsibility for supervision of regular subjects would in such cases fall on the superintendent. Of principals who have time set aside for supervision only one-half have approximately full time for supervision. There is, however, little difference between the part played by the superintendent in supervision in relationship to full time supervising principals and in relationship to part time supervising principals.

INFLUENCE OF TRAINING

Training might be expected to influence the part played by the principal in supervision. The typical elementary school principal has, on the other hand, only slightly more than three years of training beyond high school. This is but little more than the training of the typical elementary school teacher in cities of this size. However, men principals play no larger part in supervision than women principals, even though the men do have more years of training.

At the same time it seems likely that with their present limited training elementary school principals in these cities have only partially demonstrated their competence in supervision. The superintendent, therefore, feels it necessary to retain for himself a definite role as a classroom supervisor. High-school principals, on the other hand, with more training seem to have only slightly larger supervisory responsibility. In the case of high-school principals it may be a matter of kind of training in addition to amount. At the same time, the training of the typical high-school principal in these cities does not exceed the training of the typical high-school teacher by an amount larger than that by which the training of the elementary principals exceeds the training of the elementary teacher.

SIZE OF BUILDINGS AS A FACTOR

The small elementary school buildings in these cities probably retard the employment of competent supervising principals. Although full-time supervising principals are found in buildings of nearly all enrollments, it seems hardly to be expected that a highly-trained supervising principal can be secured for each of the many buildings enrolling 300 pupils or less. This probably means that for a time at least, in many of the school systems where small buildings are found in considerable numbers, a general supervisory officer must be employed.

Whatever may be the justification for the joint administration of classroom supervision by the superintendent and principals in these

school systems, the procedure probably results in a lessened efficiency on the part of the supervisory organization. The fact that the superintendent's time is consumed in the detail of supervision prevents him from giving the necessary direction and guidance to the work of other supervisors. The absence of this directing effort is no doubt largely responsible for the lack of coördination in existing supervisory organization.

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

In so far as teachers' judgments are available in this study, they indicate that supervisors have at their disposal a large number of activities and devices which are acceptable to teachers. Particularly do teachers approve of activities which are coöperative in nature and which are designed to encourage self-improvement and provide specific training? Judged by the reports of supervisors and teachers alike a great many of these activities are little used. Supervision, as provided by principals and general supervisors, seems to be largely a fact-finding process while that furnished by special supervisors is a detailed demonstration procedure. If teachers and specialists have correctly evaluated the activities in the inventory, only small beginnings have been made toward providing teachers with the supervisory assistance which they feel would be most helpful.

TRAINING OF TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

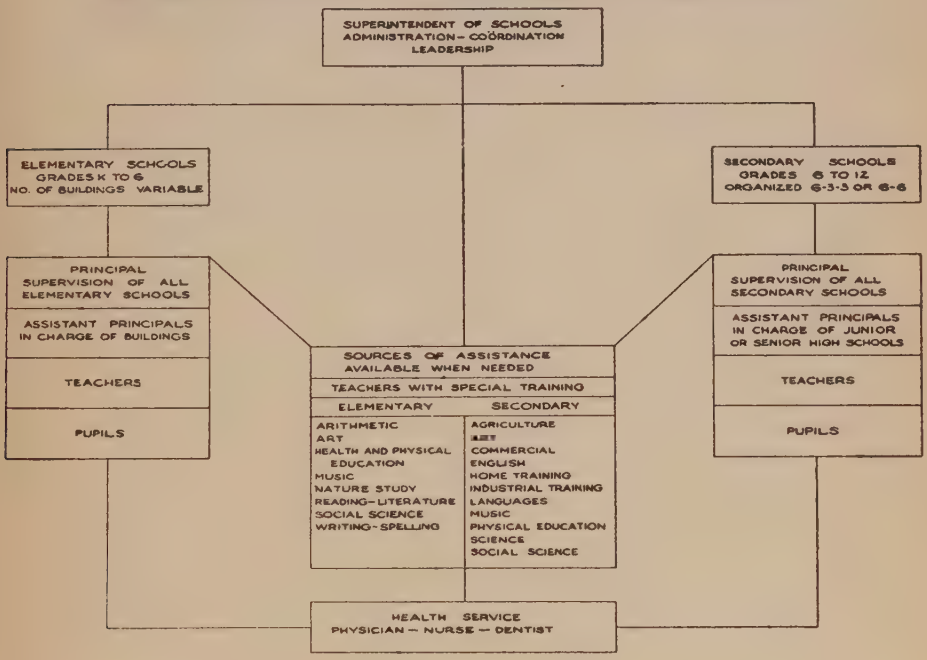
Especially in the reactions of specialists one discerns the idea that the supervisory activities and procedures to be followed will depend in large measure upon the training of the teachers supervised. For example high-school teachers with higher training levels seem more indifferent to classroom visitation than elementary teachers. It may be that as teacher training levels increase, inspectorial and demonstration procedures will give way to other activities which interfere less with the details of the classroom teacher's work. In any case it seems reasonable to suppose that supervisory procedure in relationship to highly-trained and competent teachers would vary from that employed to assist untrained or inexperienced teachers. It appears, therefore, that the whole problem of supervisory activities and devices is a dynamic one. As a result of increased training and as a result of supervision itself, modifications or changes in supervisory activities may be expected.

THE FORM OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION

It is evident that existing supervisory organizations have been built upon the assumption that the classroom teacher is unprepared to provide instruction in certain special subjects. Accordingly, responsibility for content of the work and method has been placed with specialists. The second assumption underlying existing organizations is that building principals are untrained to play a major role in supervision, making it necessary for the superintendent to share the responsibility for active supervisory work in regular subjects. These are, of course, not the only possible concepts upon which an organization could be developed. For example, highly-trained teachers with skill in all subjects, special and regular, might be employed. At the

DIAGRAM TWO

A FORM OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION BASED UPON COMPLETE RESPONSIBILITY OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS FOR ALL SUBJECTS, SPECIAL OR REGULAR.



same time varying plans in general supervision might be evolved. In a situation with two or three large elementary school buildings, well-trained principals might be employed who would supervise special as well as general subjects. With numbers of small buildings, one very

competent principal might be placed in charge of all elementary school supervision with assistants in charge of separate buildings. If more or less complete departmentalization of elementary instruction is desired, a different organization would result. It will be seen that the variable in these organizations is the degree of responsibility which teachers and principals are expected to assume in relationship to their respective functions of teaching and supervision.

SOME POSSIBLE PLANS

Thus Diagram 1 portrays an organization in which teachers have limited responsibilities in the special subjects and principals have shared responsibilities for supervision. On the other hand, Diagram 2 illustrates a plan under which teachers have complete responsibility for the teaching of all subjects and principals have complete responsibility for the supervision of all subjects. Finally, Diagram 3 is based upon a complete specialization of all teaching in the elementary school above certain grades.

JUDGMENTS OF SPECIALISTS

An effort was made to determine the judgments of various educational groups with regard to several possible plans for teaching and supervising the special subjects. Superintendents, supervisors, and specialists were asked to check, from a list of descriptive items,

TABLE LXV

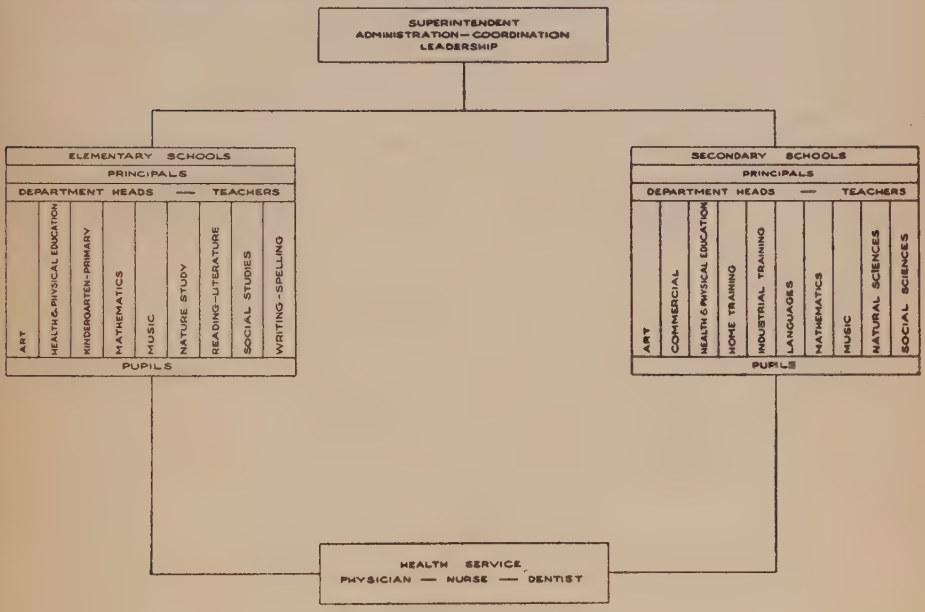
COMPARING PERCENTAGES OF VARIOUS SPECIAL SUPERVISORS IN 100 CITIES WHO FAVOR CERTAIN TYPES OF ORGANIZATION FOR THE TEACHING AND SUPERVISION OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

Plan	Percent		
	Art	Music	Physical Education
Train classroom teachers so well in special subjects that supervisors need act only in advisory capacity, providing stimulation and leadership	42	38	24
Train general supervisors or principals so well in special subjects that they would be able to act in such advisory capacity	8	8	10
Give classroom teachers only elementary training in special subjects and provide detailed supervision by a trained supervisor	6	10	36
Have all special subjects in the elementary school taught by highly-trained special teachers	32	29	24

those items which best described their judgment with regard to these plans. The summary of the replies of the various groups is given in Tables LXV and LXVI. Special supervisors as a group are not convinced that it is possible to train classroom teachers in the special subjects so that such teachers will need only advisory supervision. Physical education teachers seem to be the least hopeful of this pro-

DIAGRAM THREE

A FORM OF SUPERVISORY ORGANIZATION BASED UPON DEPARTMENTALIZATION OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOL AND HIGH-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION.



cedure. The superintendents are in close agreement with the art and music supervisors, while specialists in administration and supervision have considerably more confidence in the ability of classroom teachers to qualify in the teaching of the special subjects.

No groups except the superintendents seem to think it practical to train general supervisors to supervise the special subjects, nor do any of the groups seem to favor the plan of giving classroom teachers only elementary training in these subjects. Specialists evidently would like to see classroom teachers well trained in the special subjects or have all such subjects taught by special teachers.

TABLE LXVI

COMPARING THE JUDGMENTS OF SUPERVISORS, ADMINISTRATORS AND THOSE OF AUTHORITIES IN THE FIELD OF ADMINISTRATION AND SUPERVISION CONCERNING CERTAIN TYPES OF ORGANIZATION FOR THE TEACHING AND SUPERVISION OF SPECIAL SUBJECTS

Plan	Percent		
	Special Supervisors	Superintendents	Specialists
Train classroom teachers so well that the supervisor need act only in advisory capacity, providing stimulation and leadership....	42	40	56
Train general supervisor or principals so well in such special subjects that they would be able to act in such advisory capacity	10	45	22
Give classroom teachers only elementary training in such special subjects and provide detailed supervision by a trained supervisor.....	12	12	24
Have all special subjects in the elementary school by highly-trained special teachers.....	30	23	34
Number included.....	179	100	56

DISAGREEMENT FOUND

It seems significant, in relation to the problem of the special subjects, that there should appear as much disagreement among the various groups as to the most desirable procedure for teaching and supervision. Certainly in terms of these judgments no plan is established as a necessary one or as the only practical one. Fairly substantial numbers of competent authorities can be mustered in support of any of the plans. Certainly any tendency shown in the judgments is in the direction of giving the classroom teacher larger responsibility and better training for the so-called special subjects. On the other hand, fairly substantial numbers believe that such subjects should be taught entirely by highly-trained special teachers. The practice which is in widest use at the present time, that of providing expert supervision for teachers with only limited training, seems to receive the least support from the members of the various groups. Specialists are in disagreement among themselves, but in whatever respects they do agree they take issue with current practice.

CONCLUSION

As far as the above data are concerned the most widely favored plan of organization assumes teachers are as well trained in special as in regular subjects. One type of organization based on this

assumption is shown in Diagram 2. Under such an organization the supervisor does not "show the teacher how to teach" but assumes leadership in various activities designed to improve teaching. Such activities may be individual or coöperative. All the members of the teaching staff may participate. Among these teachers are many with specialized training. Theoretically one might assume each teacher to have a specialized contribution to make to the supervisory program. Teachers already in the system might be encouraged to get such special training. New teachers might be selected with this special training as a qualification. The plan of organization assumes that any teacher or supervisor may be called on to assist if necessary. High-school teachers may be asked to assist in elementary school activities and vice versa.

Under this form of organization the classroom teacher is directly responsible to only one supervisory officer. She may go to many others who may render assistance but they are without authority to tell the teacher what to do. There can be no conflicting orders given. The teacher will not be placed in the position of having to teach according to one method for the supervisor of music, and another method for the principal. To be sure this type of organization assumes considerable initiative on the part of teachers for efforts in the improvement of their own teaching. It would seem, however, that this greater initiative should be one of the concomitants of higher training on the part of teachers. It seems reasonable that increase in the ability of teachers to assume initiative for instructional improvement will make necessary a modification in supervisory procedure.

In conclusion it must be admitted that the plan of supervisory organization adopted for any school system will depend upon those factors of school organization, teacher training, and educational objectives which obtain in that system. These factors are dynamic rather than static. It is, therefore, to be expected that constant modifications must be in the organizations charged with the responsibility for improvement of teaching, as well as in the activities which these organizations carry on.

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Appendixes

APPENDIX A

Cities Included

	Population	*Superintendent*
Alabama		
Selma	15,589	P. M. Munro
California		
Pomona	13,505	Emmett Clark
Riverside	19,341	A. M. Wheelock
San Bernardino	18,721	C. R. Holbrook
Santa Ana	15,485	J. A. Cranston
Colorado		
Greeley	10,958	G. E. Brown
Connecticut		
East Hartford	11,648	Percival S. Barnes
Milford	10,193	C. W. Maddocks
Wallingford	12,010	H. Morton Jeffords
Georgia		
Rome	13,252	B. F. Quigg
Illinois		
Blue Island	11,424	J. E. Lemon
Champaign	15,873	W. W. Earnest
Granite City	14,757	L. P. Frohardt
Herrin	10,986	John R. Creek
Kewanee	16,026	Charles Bruner
Streator	14,779	H. B. Fisher
Waukegan	19,226	John S. Clark
Indiana		
La Porte	15,158	E. B. Wetheraw
Michigan City	19,457	Milo C. Murray
Iowa		
Keokuk	14,423	R. L. Reid
Mason City	20,065	Frank T. Vasey
Kansas		
Arkansas City	11,253	C. E. St. John
Atchison	12,630	T. B. Portwood
Coffeyville	13,452	Albert I. Decker
Emporia	11,273	L. A. Lowther
Leavenworth	16,912	Ira J. Bright
Salina	15,085	W. S. Heusner
Kentucky		
Ashland	14,729	Clarence E. Ackley
Louisiana		
Alexandria	17,510	W. J. Avery

	Population	*Superintendent*
MAINE		
Auburn	16,985	George R. Gardner
MASSACHUSETTS		
Adams	12,967	Ralph S. Smith
Amesbury	10,036	Ralph R. Barr
Belmont	10,479	Frank A. Scott
Danvers	11,108	John C. Anthony
Greenfield	15,462	Winthrop P. Abbott
Methuen	15,189	Louis H. Conant
Norwood	12,627	Leonard W. Grant
Wakefield	13,025	Willard B. Atwell
Winchester	10,485	James J. Quinn
MICHIGAN		
Alpena	11,101	George H. Curtis
Escanaba	13,103	R. E. Cheney
Ishpeming	10,500	C. L. Phelps
Monroe	11,573	C. W. Crandell
Traverse City	10,925	Charles L. Poor
MINNESOTA		
Albert Lea	8,056	A. L. Gaarder
Austin	10,118	S. T. Neveln
Faribault	11,089	H. H. Kirk
Hibbing	15,089	J. W. Richardson
Mankato	12,469	Harry D. Kies
Owatonna	7,252	John J. Skinner
Red Wing	8,637	George V. Kinney
Rochester	13,722	G. H. Sanberg
St. Cloud	15,873	R. H. Brown
South St. Paul	6,860	I. T. Simley
Winona	19,143	R. B. Irons
MISSOURI		
Jefferson City	14,490	William F. Knox
MONTANA		
Anaconda	11,668	W. K. Dwyer
Missoula	12,668	Ira B. Fee
NEBRASKA		
Hastings	11,647	A. H. Staley
NEW HAMPSHIRE		
Keene	11,210	W. C. T. Adams
NEW JERSEY		
Asbury Park	12,400	A. E. Kraybill
Belleville	15,660	G. R. Gerard
Englewood	11,627	Winton J. White
Hackensack	17,667	William A. Smith
Long Branch	13,521	Charles T. Stone
Millville	14,691	Harvey A. Smith
Phillipsburg	16,923	George A. Kipp

	Population	*Superintendent*
NEW YORK		
Batavia	13,541	Clyde P. Wells
Dunkirk	19,336	F. R. Darling
Hudson	11,745	M. C. Smith
Ilion	10,169	Earl P. Watkin
Johnstown	10,908	E. L. Ackley
Kerkimer	10,435	Loraine W. Bills
North Tonawanda	15,482	D. E. Batchellor
Saratoga Springs	13,181	Harris Crandall
NORTH CAROLINA		
Goldsboro	11,296	Ray Armstrong
Rocky Mount	12,742	R. M. Wilson
Salisbury	13,884	G. B. Phillips
NORTH DAKOTA		
Bismarck	7,122	H. O. Saxvik
Grand Forks	14,010	W. C. Stebbins
OHIO		
Barberton	18,811	U. L. Light
Chillicothe	15,831	Geo. A. Bowman
Coshocton	10,847	A. C. Pence
Salem	10,305	John S. Alan
OKLAHOMA		
Ardmore	14,181	J. J. Godbey
Bartlesville	14,417	Charles O. Haskell
Shawnee	15,384	H. G. Faust
PENNSYLVANIA		
Bradford	15,525	James F. Butterworth
Charleroi	11,516	Thomas L. Pollock
Mahanoy City	15,599	H. A. Oday
Meadville	14,568	Milon Brown
Monessen	18,179	C. R. McClelland
Mount Carmel	17,469	Wilbur M. Yeingst
Pittston	18,497	D. J. Cray
Punxsutawney	10,311	F. S. Jackson
Swissvale	10,908	C. C. Kelso
Uniontown	15,692	Milton D. Proctor
Warren	14,272	P. W. M. Pressel
West Chester	11,717	Walter L. Philips
SOUTH DAKOTA		
Aberdeen	14,537	Mathew P. Gafney
TENNESSEE		
Johnson City	12,422	C. E. Rogers
TEXAS		
Corsicana	11,356	H. D. Fillers
Palestine	11,039	Bonner Frizzell
Texarkana	11,480	H. W. Stilwell

	Population	*Superintendent*
VERMONT		
Rutland	14,954	W. W. Fairchild
VIRGINIA		
Alexandria	18,060	R. C. Bowton
Staunton	10,623	L. F. Shelbourne
WASHINGTON		
Walla Walla	15,503	W. M. Kern
WEST VIRGINIA		
Fairmont	17,851	Otis G. Wilson
Morgantown	12,127	R. C. Smith
Moundsville	10,669	John C. Shreve
WISCONSIN		
Beloit	21,284	Frank E. Converse
Chippewa Falls	9,130	Robert F. Lohrie
Eau Claire	20,906	P. G. W. Keller
Fond du Lac	23,427	L. P. Goodrich
Manitowoc	17,563	Hugh S. Bonar
Stevens Point	11,371	P. M. Vincent
West Allis	13,745	T. J. Jones
WYOMING		
Cheyenne	13,829	A. S. Jessup
Laramie	6,301	A. A. Slade

APPENDIX B

List of Educational Specialists Coöperating

Name	*Institution*
John C. Almack	Stanford University
C. P. Archer	Moorhead State Teachers College
E. J. Ashbaugh	Ohio State University
Fred C. Ayer	University of Texas
Julius Boraas	St. Olaf College
C. W. Boardman	University of Minnesota
Franklin Bobbitt	University of Chicago
Frederick E. Bolton	University of Washington
Thomas H. Briggs	Teachers College, Columbia University
Edwin J. Brown	Stanford University
L. J. Brueckner	University of Minnesota
G. T. Buswell	University of Chicago
William A. Cook	University of Cincinnati
W. W. Charters	University of Chicago
C. O. Davis	University of Michigan
J. B. Edmonson	University of Michigan
Fred Engelhardt	University of Minnesota
A. M. Field	University of Minnesota
John Guy Fowlkes	University of Wisconsin
H. S. Ganders	University of Cincinnati
J. Harold Goldthorpe	University of Minnesota
S. A. Hamrin	Moorhead State Teachers College
W. R. Hepner	Superintendent of Schools, Fresno, California
Katherine Hamilton	Assistant Superintendent of Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota
J. F. Hosic	Teachers College, Columbia University
Earl Hudelson	University of Minnesota
P. W. Hutson	University of Pittsburgh
Franklyn W. Johnson	Teachers College, Columbia University
Grayson N. Kefauver	University of Minnesota
F. J. Kelly	University of Minnesota
William H. Kilpatrick	Teachers College, Columbia University
H. C. Koch	University of Nebraska
Frank H. Koos	Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Winston-Salem, North Carolina
Leonard V. Koos	University of Minnesota
F. W. Lathrop	University of Minnesota
C. R. Maxwell	University of Wyoming
W. S. Miller	University of Minnesota
H. C. Morrison	University of Chicago
J. C. Morrison	State Department of Education, Albany, N. Y.
Lois Coffey Mossman	Teachers College, Columbia University
E. M. Paulu	Northern Normal School, Aberdeen, South Dakota

Name	*Institution*
W. E. Peik	University of Minnesota
S. R. Powers	Teachers College, Columbia University
J. O. Powers	George Washington University
W. C. Reavis	University of Chicago
C. W. Stone	State College, Pullman, Washington
P. W. Terry	University of Alabama
W. W. Theisen	Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Milwaukee, Wisconsin
A. L. Threlkeld	Superintendent of Schools, Denver, Colorado
W. F. Tidyman	State College, Fresno, California
Austin H. Turney	University of Kansas
Fred Von Borgersrode	University of North Dakota
Carleton W. Washburne	Superintendent of Schools, Winnetka, Illinois
Frederick L. Whitney	Colorado State Teachers College
G. M. Wilson	Boston University
Clifford Woody	University of Michigan

APPENDIX C

Sample Forms Used

Sample showing checking scheme for supervisory activities. This form was checked by all who participated in the investigation.

SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES

Below are listed a considerable number of supervisory activities and devices. It is desired to determine the extent to which you use or emphasize these activities in your own supervisory work. Following each item, place a check mark in the one of the four columns headed "Your Practice" which best describes the extent to which you use the activity or device.

It is also desired to secure your judgment concerning the value of these various activities. Following each item, place a check mark in the one of the four columns headed "Your Judgment" which best describes your judgment concerning the value of the activity or device.

I. Fact-finding activities and devices. Check (✓) in proper column.	Your Practice				Your Judgment			
	Much used or emphasized	Used some	Used very little	Not used	Of great value	Some value	Little or no value	Undesirable—should not be used
A. Classroom visitation								
1. Announced visits (i.e., teachers are informed they will be visited at definite time)								
2. Unannounced visits (teachers not informed of visits)								
3. Long visits (whole period or greater part of period)								
4. Short visits (small part of period)								
Others (name them)								
B. Tests and measurements								
1. Standard achievement tests								
2. Intelligence tests								
3. Informal tests (prepared by teachers)								
4. Diagnostic tests								
Others (name them)								
C. Teachers' reports								
1. Time allotment reports								
2. Reporting methods used								
3. Reports of objectives of lessons								
4. Materials Used								
5. Reports of lesson plans								
Others (name them)								
D. Systematic conferences with pupils to determine extent to which instruction meets their needs								
E. Others (name them)								

Form checked by all supervisory officers who participated in the investigation

1. Proportion of school time given to supervision (include teaching for demonstration).....; to actual teaching.....; to other activities..... (Supervision here means any activity designed to improve the work of teachers.) Express in fraction as ¼, ½.
2. Number of visits you give each teacher per month.....
3. Usual length of visits in minutes.....
4. Title of person to whom you feel most directly responsible.....
5. Latitude accorded you by the administration.
   Place a check mark (√) following each item in the column which best describes the latitude accorded you.

Activity	Prescribed in detail	Prescribed in general only	Complete freedom of action accorded
Time allotment			
Course of study			
Teaching methods			
Activities used			
Adherence to texts			
Basis for promotion			
Basis for classification			
Basis for marking			

6. Latitude which you accord to teachers under your direction or supervision.
   Place a check mark (√) following each item in the column which best describes the latitude you accord teachers under your supervision.

Activity	Prescribed in detail	Prescribed in general only	Complete freedom of action accorded
Time allotment			
Course of study			
Teaching methods			
Activities used			
Adherence to texts			
Basis for promotion			
Basis of classification			
Basis for marking			

Form checked by all special supervisors.

SUPERVISION OF MUSIC

1. Practices in the organization of music supervision
   Check (√) the items which best describe practices in your system
   ..... All music in elementary schools taught by classroom teachers
   ..... All music in elementary schools taught by supervisor
   ..... All music in elementary schools taught by special teachers
   ..... Supervisor teaches for demonstration purposes only
   ..... Supervisor visits regularly on schedule
   ..... Visits unannounced with no schedule
   ..... Spends most of visitation time teaching for demonstration
   ..... Spends most of visitation time in observation
   ..... Divides her time equally among teachers
   ..... Visits some teachers frequently and others very seldom
   ..... Prepares course of study for teachers in music
   ..... Organizes teachers for making course of study
   ..... Works under the direction of superintendent
   ..... Works under the direction of general supervisor
   ..... Works independently, planning her own work
   ..... Works under the principal when in any particular building
2. Supervisory principles followed in music supervision
   Check (√) the statements which best describe your views.
   ..... The supervisor believes it is her function to visit classes and confer with teachers concerning the detail of teaching method
   ..... Believes the supervisor should take the initiative in the work of improving instruction
   ..... Believes the responsibility of the supervisor is to see that certain definite objectives are attained in instruction
   ..... Believes the chief supervisory function of the supervisor is not to show teachers how to teach their subjects but rather to stimulate effort on the part of teachers in improving their own teaching through study and experimentation
   ..... Believes initiative for improvement of instruction rests primarily with heads of departments
   ..... Believes the initiative for improvement of instruction rests primarily with teachers
   ..... Believes the supervisor should extend assistance chiefly "on call," that is, help those who ask for assistance
   ..... Assumes teachers to be highly trained specialists who are competent to direct their own work without detailed supervision
   ..... Believes detailed assistance to teachers impractical because of the variety of subjects offered
   ..... Supervisor believes conformity to a particular method is essential in music teaching
   ..... Supervisor believes that originality and initiative on the part of teachers is more important than uniformity in method
   ..... Supervisor devotes most of her effort to the work of seeing to it that music is taught by all teachers in accordance with certain standards and methods
   ..... Supervisor devotes most of her effort to the work of stimulating growth and initiative on the part of teachers in finding new and better methods and procedures
3. Your judgment regarding organization and procedure for teaching of music
   Check (√) the items which describe what in your judgment would be the most effective procedure.
   ..... Train classroom teachers so well in music that the supervisor need act only in advisory capacity, providing stimulation, leadership
   ..... Train general supervisor or principals so well in music that they would be able to act in such advisory capacity
   ..... Give classroom teachers only elementary training in music and provide detailed supervision by a trained music supervisor
   ..... Have all music in elementary school taught by highly-trained special teachers of music

Form checked by all principals who participated in the investigation.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL SUPERVISION

1. Relationships and responsibilities.
Check (√) each item in the column which best describes the practice in your system.

Supervisory Activity or Responsibility	Carried on Chiefly by Superintendent	Carried on Jointly by Supt. and Prin.	Exclusively Delegated to Principal
Classroom visitation			
Giving suggestions regarding teaching methods			
Calling meetings of elementary school teachers			
Leadership in curriculum construction			
Selection of texts, materials of instruction			
Rating teachers for re-employment			
Selection of new teachers			

2. Principles under which elementary school supervision is organized
Check (√) the statements which best express your views.

..... The principal believes it is his function to visit classes and confer with teachers concerning the detail of teaching method.
..... Believes the principal should take the initiative in the work of improving instruction.
..... Believes the responsibility of the principal is to see that certain definite objectives are attained in elementary school instruction.
..... Believes the chief supervisory function of the elementary school principal is not to show teachers how to teach their subjects. but rather to stimulate effort on the part of teachers in improving their own teaching through study and experimentation.
..... Believes initiative for improvement of instruction in elementary school rests primarily with heads of departments.
..... Believes the initiative for improvement of instruction in elementary school rests primarily with teachers.
..... Believes the principal should extend assistance chiefly "on call," that is, help those who ask for assistance.
..... Assumes teachers to be highly-trained specialists who are competent to direct their own work without detailed supervision.
..... Believes detailed assistance to elementary school teachers impractical because of the variety of subjects offered.

VITA

The author, Ernest Oscar Melby, was born in Lake Park, Minnesota, August 16, 1891. He was graduated from the Lake Park (Minn.) High School in 1908, and received the B.A. degree from St. Olaf College in 1913. He entered the Graduate School of the University of Minnesota in June, 1925 and received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in July, 1928. He served as an Instructor in the College of Education from 1926 to 1928. He is now Assistant Professor of Education, Northwestern University, Evanston, Ill.